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CHARGES AT THE WORLD'S FAIR.

BY THE DIRECTOR GENERAL, GEORGE R. DAVIS.

WILL visitors to the World's Columbian Exposition be able to live comfortably and at reasonable rates during their stay in Chicago?

The question is suggested by the Editor of THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW, and the recent and very general agitation of the subject justifies as definite answer as can be made at this time. It may be well to emphasize at the outset the peculiar conditions of the problem. No international exposition has ever been projected on such a scale as the Columbian Exposition. It may be said without exaggeration that no peaceful undertaking has ever attracted such widespread attention.

The transportation lines of this country expect such a movement towards Chicago from May 1 to October 30 of this year, as has never been paralleled. Their calculations are based on the best possible information from innumerable local agencies covering this and foreign countries. Under favorable conditions and in the absence of any great national calamity the most conservative estimates place the influx of strangers at about fifty thousand a day, or six millions for the six months of the Exposition. The estimates are, of course, purely speculative. Their value depends largely upon the climatic conditions during the season; upon prevailing charges for transportation; and, perhaps most of

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all, upon the attitude of those people who will furnish accommodations for the visiting public in Chicago.

By the time the gates of Jackson Park are open to visitors, twenty million dollars will have been expended by the management on the magnificent buildings of the Exposition, the adornment of the grounds, foreign and domestic promotion and the general administration of the Fair. This sum does not include any of the amounts paid out by foreign countries for their buildings, the expenditures for State buildings, or the cost of any of the exhibits or the expense of their installation. It represents only the amount expended under authority of the management.

The Exposition offers but two sources of income to those who have advanced this vast sum to prepare the Fair for the coming of visitors. One is the gate receipts, and the other, a percentage from concessions and special privileges for the sale of merchandise on the grounds. It must be apparent, therefore, that those most deeply concerned in the success of the undertaking are interested in keeping visitors in the city as long as possible, in enabling them to visit the Exposition many times, and in protecting them from extortion on the part of landlords and others. Ordinary business sagacity would suggest the advantages of protracting the stay of visitors rather than hastening their departure by a system of overcharging.

As early as November, 1890, if the reader will pardon a reference to one of my official acts, I directed attention to the advisability of organizing a bureau of protection and public comfort, the special duty of which, as the title indicates, would be to furnish strangers with accurate information in regard to desirable living quarters at reasonable terms. The management at that early day foresaw the possible discomfort to visitors and the consequent loss of patronage. This bureau has been organized. In general, its purpose is to ascertain what the hotel and rooming facilities of the city are, and what the cost of living will be. In furtherance of this plan, the bureau has undertaken to contract in advance with the landlords for such facilities as may be demanded by incoming visitors. The bureau is only an intermediary, furnishing both lessee and lessor a guarantee of financial responsibility and acting as a temporary balance-wheel to prevent any sudden disarrangement of the machinery that will be set in motion to supply

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the wants of an extraordinary assemblage of strangers within the municipal limits.

The chief of this bureau occupied a similar relation to the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia. From him I learn that the bureau has already registered hotels and rooms with a capacity of some fifteen thousand people daily, the list including none of the big hotels down town, or large structures in course of erection within a short distance of the Exposition grounds. The accommodations registered include only the better class of quarters, and are within limits bounded by North Avenue on the north and by Seventy-ninth Street on the south, the farthest point being within less than an hour's ride and the nearest within a short distance of the grounds. The average scale of prices scheduled ranges from $1.36 per day for a single room occupied by one person to $5.50 for large single apartments occupied by four persons. The prices quoted may be taken as a fair basis of the charges now contemplated by the householders, who expect the Exposition attendance to be a source of revenue.

Estimates believed to be reliable place the hotel capacity of the city at one hundred and thirty-five thousand guests, excluding the prominent down-town hostelries, which have an emergency capacity for at least ten thousand people. And none of these estimates takes into account the enormous capacity of the temporary hotels and other places in course of construction. Personal investigation made by experts for use in this connection shows that there are hotels enough built and in construction within a radius of a mile from the Exposition to lodge at least fifty thousand people every day. Religious organizations, clubs, coöperative associations, dormitory associations and affiliated bodies of great numerical strength have undertaken to solve the question of suitable accommodations for visitors. Bearing in mind these extensive arrangements for the reception of transient visitors it may be of value to consider the probable number of such visitors, taking such data for comparison as are offered by the Centennial Exposition in 1876 and the Paris Exposition in 1889.

The average daily attendance at the Centennial was 62,333; the largest attendance was 274,919; the smallest 12,720. The daily average at Paris was 130,000; the largest single day's admissions, 400,000. While the circumstances and con-

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ditions surrounding the Columbian Exposition differ materially from those of either the Centennial or Paris exhibition, the divergence is not great enough to affect a very clear conclusion from the figures given. The unavoidable inference drawn from every international fair is this: The attendance is very largely drawn from the population within a limited radius from the site of the exposition. Thus, for instance, the statistics of the Paris Exhibition show that on days when the attendance averaged 250,000, at least 190,000 came from Paris and its environs.

Allowing for the difference in national habits which makes the American regard a trip from San Francisco to Chicago with greater readiness than the Frenchman does a journey to Berlin; allowing, too, for the unlimited stimulus to travel given by the excursion system planned by the railroads of this country for the coming event—taking every possible factor into account, it seems hardly possible that more than an average of two hundred thousand non-residents will be in Chicago at any one time during the Exposition. Assuming, then, that two hundred thousand will be the largest average of strangers needing food and lodging in the city, no one familiar with the situation would hesitate to declare that the ordinary rule of supply and demand will prevail throughout the six months and that the price of living will be as reasonable as could be expected.

I have mentioned a number of associations that have been projected to insure cheap and comfortable living apartments for visitors. Let me call special attention to one of these as illustrating the plan and purposes of the others. The Woman's Dormitory Association was organized months ago by a number of the foremost women of Chicago. Its object is to furnish neat, convenient, and cheap living rooms for industrial women and others who perhaps would not be able to reap the benefits of the Fair if compelled to live in hotels during their stay in the city. The capital stock of this company was divided into shares of ten dollars each. The shares are not subject to assessment. The woman who buys a share of this stock exchanges it for an order on the association for apartments in the dormitory, where she is charged at the rate of forty cents a day for lodging. In other words, each share of stock entitles the holder to live twenty-five days in the hotel erected by this association. Of course, the rate

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named does not include table service. The special purpose of this association was to enable working girls, clubs of women, teachers, and, in short, all women in moderate circumstances, to get the benefit of what we believe will be the greatest stimulus to education of the century. These shares of stock were offered for sale in every State in the Union, and in foreign countries, many of them being bought by philanthropic women who will place them in the hands of deserving girls and matrons. This dormitory will furnish living rooms for one thousand persons a day, and any deficit, at the close of the Exposition, will be borne by the ladies of this city who inaugurated the noble philanthropy. Since the Woman's Dormitory was organized and its success assured, others have been undertaken on a similar plan, one of them to accommodate families, and especially aged men and women.

I might enumerate other projects that are being fostered by the citizens of Chicago to protect their guests, but these fairly illustrate the work now being done. The sentiment of this city is overwhelmingly against any unfairness or extortion in dealing with our coming guests. I believe that the better element of our citizenship would rebuke anything like systematic extortion on the part of landlords by throwing open their residences and inviting strangers to come in. In a matter involving the honor and the pride of the city, I do not doubt that Chicago will rise to the occasion and acquit herself in a manner that will win the plaudits of the world.

Undoubtedly there will be some cases of excessive charges. Perhaps some visitors who do not stop to inquire about rates or who neglect to make contracts in advance of taking possession of their apartments will be charged unreasonably. This is not an uncommon occurrence elsewhere. But speaking of the situation in general, of the treatment the great majority of strangers will receive, I am confident that when the Exposition season is over it will be found that those visitors who exercised ordinary prudence will have no reason to complain of the treatment they received.

GEO. R. DAVIS.

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BRAIN SURGERY.

BY WILLIAM A. HAMMOND, M. D., SURGEON-GENERAL U. S. ARMY (RETIRED).

AMONG the many wonderful advances made in medical science during the present half of the nineteenth century that of the successful performance of surgical operations on the human brain may properly be accorded a prominent place in the front rank, and it must also be borne in mind that that rank embraces anæsthesia, antisepsis and the germ theory of the cause and cure of disease. Any one of these is sufficient of itself to mark an era in the progress of the science and art of medicine.

Within the memory of surgeons of the present generation the idea of attempting in cold blood a surgical operation on the brain would have been reprobated as utterly unjustifiable, and as logically entitling the perpetrator either to incarceration within the walls of a lunatic asylum or those of a prison. The organ was looked upon as something almost sacred, and as not to be touched by the profane knife of the surgeon. It was regarded as being the seat not only of the mind but of the soul, and he who should have dared to desecrate this temple of the immortal essence would have had to endure the vituperation not only of those of his own profession—of whom there are always many—who stand in the way of progress, but of still more narrow-minded and unprogressive theologians.

It is not to be forgotten that some of these latter when anæsthesia was introduced into obstetrical practice thundered their anathemas from the pulpit and the press against the wicked physicians who were, as they declared, defying the Almighty, and trying to set aside the curse pronounced against Eve—"In sorrow shalt thou bring forth all the days of thy life." And to our shame we must admit that there were physicians in

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those days who entertained the belief that it was good for a woman that she should suffer at such times. Happily the spirit of the age is different now, and though there still exists, and will exist till the end of the world, jealousy and ultra conservatism in the one profession, and mental stagnation and ignorance of science in the other, the skilful, the conscientious and the bold investigator can generally manage to hold his own against all attacks whether they come from within or without.

Again, extremely exalted ideas in regard to the delicacy of the structure of the brain conjoined with the intricacy of the arrangements of its several parts, and very considerable ignorance of their functions, have tended to make surgeons exceedingly cautious, not to say terrorized, at the idea of invading its precincts even in the slightest degree. Experiments which accidents made for them did not seem to create much of an impression. Thus, persons have had their skulls fractured and have lost several tablespoonfuls of brain matter and yet have recovered. Others have had fragments of the skull driven into the brain by violence, and they have remained there, causing no subsequent inconvenience, and still others have been shot in the head and the bullets have remained encysted in the brain, while the injured person continued to go about his business with as much intelligence as he had before the wound.

Not very many years ago a strong, healthy man twenty-five years of age was engaged in ramming down a charge of powder in a rock to be blasted when an explosion took place and the tamping iron was driven through his head from the base of his skull to the vertex. In a few minutes he recovered his consciousness, was put into a cart and carried three-quarters of a mile to his residence where he got out and walked into the house. Two hours afterwards he was seen by a physician; he was then quite conscious and collected in his mind, but exhausted by an extensive hemorrhage from the hole in the top of his head. But the wound finally closed up and his recovery was complete. There was no pain in the head, but he experienced a queer feeling which he could not describe. As regards his mind he was fitful and vacillating, though obstinate as he had always been. He became very profane, never having been so before the accident. He lived twelve and a half years after the accident, and his cranium with the bar that went through it are now in the Warren Anatomical Museum

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at Boston. An examination shows that the left anterior lobe of the brain had suffered severely by this terrible injury, and yet the derangement of the mental and bodily faculties was certainly not in proportion to the extensive loss of brain substance that had been suffered.

And this case is equalled if not excelled by another, and the subject of this injury is so, far as I know, still alive. In this instance a healthy and intelligent man about twenty-seven years of age was blasting coal when the charge exploded unexpectedly and an iron gas pipe that he was using was driven transversely through his head, entering just above the right eye and emerging on the opposite side near the middle of the skull. One of his fellow-miners saw him on his hands and knees struggling as if to rise. In going to the man's assistance, he placed his knee upon his chest, supported his head with one hand, and with the other withdrew the pipe. This last projected about equally on each side of the head, and much force was required for its withdrawal. Brain escaped from the anterior opening and coma and collapse supervened. In seven weeks he sat up and in one more walked about. There was no paralysis anywhere, but the movements of his right hand were somewhat impaired. Nearly a year after the accident his memory for some things was almost lost, but during the next two months there was considerable improvement.

The accident happened on May 14, 1867, and in June, 1868, the patient with the gas pipe was exhibited in the Massachusetts Medical Society. Dr. Jackson stated at the time that the man appeared to be in a good state of general health, and though his mental powers were considerably impaired there was nothing unusual in his expression nor would there be noticed, in a few minutes' conversation with him, any marked deficiency of intellect.

Such unintentional surgical operations as these, and many other similar ones, ought not to have been disregarded, and yet they seem to have created no other emotion than that of astonishment that, notwithstanding the terrible injuries inflicted on the brain, the subjects continued to live in comparatively good mental and physical health. Even after the German Hitzig, the Englishman Ferrier, and other investigators in different parts of the world had mapped out the surface of the brain, explored its interior, and demonstrated the relations of its several

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centres to the sensory and motor functions of the body, there was a howl of indignation when that bold and scientific physician, Dr. Bartholow, touched with the electric needle the exposed brain of a patient and established for the first time on a human subject the functions of a cortical centre. Bartholow's experiment is now a common procedure in surgical operations on the brain when there is doubt as to the anatomical relations of the part upon which we are operating. We touch the point with a delicate needle connected with a very small galvanic battery and the muscles which derive their motor power from that region at once respond by contracting.

Many experiments of this character performed upon animals, especially monkeys, have given us quite accurate ideas of the position of the motor centres for various groups of muscles, and these, together with post-mortem examinations of the brains of persons who have died while suffering from impairment of a brain faculty have made us acquainted with the centres for speech, for vision, for hearing, and for other important ideational, sensory and motor functions.

As an example, take that of speech, a power that may be deranged by injury of that part of the brain called the speech tract, and which, strange to say, is located or at least developed, in perhaps nine hundred and ninety-nine persons out of a thousand, on the left side of the brain only. Disease or injury of this region produces the condition called aphasia, which is an impairment of the ability to recognize words when written or spoken, or the loss of the power to so use the muscles of speech as to articulate words even when these latter are recognized when written or spoken. The very idea of language is therefore destroyed. Sometimes such a condition is produced by an injury to the left side of the head, and then it may happen that a surgical operation leads at once to the restoration of the function.

Thus a man who was aphasic was the subject of a clinical lecture by the writer. From his friends, his own gestures and the few words he could speak, it was ascertained that several months previously he had been working in a stone quarry and was struck by some piece of the machinery on the left side of the head, immediately over that part of the brain which is considered to be the seat of the function of speech. Since that time he had been unable to speak more than a few words, though he could

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pronounce a word that was spoken to him, forgetting it again, however, almost as soon as it was uttered. Thus when asked where he was born he became much excited, gesticulated violently and apparently made every effort to answer. The perspiration stood out in large drops on his forehead, but no sound came from his lips. Then the following conversation took place: "Were you born in Prussia?" "No." "In Bavaria?" "No." "In Austria?" "No." "In Switzerland?" "Yes, yes, yes—Switzerland, Switzerland," at the same time laughing and moving his hands actively in all directions. He could pronounce words well, but could not write.

The man was a patient in Bellevue Hospital and the writer advised that he be trephined with a view of elevating any depressed piece of bone that might be pressing upon the brain and preventing the exercise of its normal function. The operation was performed a few days afterwards, the patient being placed under the influence of ether. The internal table of the skull was found to be fractured and a splinter of bone was pressing upon a portion of the speech tract. This was removed and as soon as the patient emerged from the anæsthetic condition he spoke perfectly well.

Not long ago a little girl some three or four years of age was under the writer's care for epilepsy and a loss of the power of speech. She had spoken as well as most children up to the age of two years, when she had fallen from her nurse's arms, striking the left side of her head with a good deal of force against the floor. Immediately afterwards convulsions ensued, and were of frequent occurrence up to the time of her coming under observation. With the supervention of the spasms speech became more imperfect, and in a month or two was entirely lost. In other respects the child was sufficiently intelligent, and there was no paralysis anywhere. The case was considered to be one favorable for an operation, and it was accordingly performed by the writer. No fracture of the skull was found, but the skull was strongly adherent to the membranes of the brain at that part, and it required some force to remove the button of bone separated by the trephine. A probe was passed between the brain and the skull and the adhesions broken up. The convulsions gradually ceased, and in a few weeks the child began to utter some words. A year afterwards the mother wrote that there were no longer any spasms and

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that the child talked so much that her uncle jokingly remarked that it might be well to send her back and have the bone replaced, for that it was better to have a girl that didn't talk at all than to have one that talked all the time.

Much more severe operations than these are now successfully performed upon the brain. Tumors that would otherwise surely cause the death of the patient are now removed and life and reason preserved. Our knowledge of the anatomy and physiology of the brain enables us to locate these and other diseased conditions with precision, and though it is true that many of the subjects of these operations die, yet it must be borne in mind that death would be the inevitable result in all of them if surgical interference were neglected. If, therefore, we succeed in saving a small proportion of such cases, humanity is the gainer.

There is a form of cranial injury in which surgical aid is especially beneficial and in which by prompt action life may frequently be saved. A man falls down an area, for instance, striking his head on the hard surface below. He is stunned for a few minutes and then partially recovers consciousness, which, however, is gradually lost and profound stupor sets in. In such an instance there is probably the rupture of a blood vessel in the membranes of the brain between this organ and the skull and blood is effused, which, by its pressure on the brain, produces stupor and eventually death. Such cases were until within the last few years invariably fatal, and even now, such is the usual result, for comparatively few surgeons know what great advances have recently been made in the science and art of brain surgery. Only a few weeks ago a case of the kind occurred in Washington City in which a man was passively allowed to die when in all probability his life could have been saved by an operation. And this operation is a very simple one. We ascertain from an inspection of the seat of injury on what part of the skull the blow has been received, and we are further strengthened in our search for evidence by the symptoms exhibited by the patient. We trephine the skull at the injured point and let out the blood that has been extravasated. As soon as the pressure is relieved consciousness is regained and the patient lives.

Quite recently operations have been performed upon the skull in cases of idiocy innate or acquired, with the view of removing a supposed disproportion between the size of the brain and the skull,

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and thus allowing the organ space in which to grow. A French surgeon proposed the removal of strips of the cranium in cases of idiocy in which the skull was unduly small, and in which as he supposed there was no room tor the brain to expand. Several of his cases and those performed according to his method by other surgeons have been in a measure successful, so that there is decided encouragement to persevere with the operation in instances in which it appears to be suitable. Several years before the pubication of his results the writer had performed similar operations for the cure of epilepsy, and in a few cases with complete success.

About a year ago a very interesting case came under his care, being that of a young man who, little by little, passed from a condition of good mental development to one of well-marked imbecility. On each side of the forehead two buttons of bone, the distance of two inches from each other, were removed by the trephine and the intervening bone was then cut away by an instrument especially adapted for the purpose. There was thus on each side of his skull an opening over three inches long and a little more than half an inch wide. He at once began to improve in his mind and in a few days after the performance of the operation he became able to carry on a conversation and even to write letters. He returned home some six weeks after the operation and in a letter received from his father last summer it is stated that his mind has continued to develop and that he is re-acquiring the knowledge of the French language, which he had possessed previous to his illness.

Cases such as these give us reason for believing that with an increased knowledge of the functions of the brain—and there is much yet for us to learn in this regard—and with improved methods of procedure the field of surgical operations on this preëminent organ of the body will be still further enlarged, and the cases that even now seem to be beyond the reach of our art will, as has been the case with so many other apparently hopeless diseases, be added to the triumphs which scientific medicine and surgery are continually achieving.

Antiseptic measures and strict attention to cleanliness and nursing have wonderfully aided in securing the many brilliant results in brain surgery which the trephine and the knife have yielded us. Now, the event most to be feared is not so much the immediate operation as it is the subsequent inflammation and

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suppuration resulting from the necessary manipulation and the exposure to the atmosphere. This danger is at the present time reduced to a minimum. The skull is opened, the membranes are divided, the brain itself is explored with probes and knives, an abscess is evacuated, a clot of blood removed, a tumor excised, and the subjects of all these bold and terrible procedures suffer no pain and recover without the formation of a single drop of pus.

WILLIAM A. HAMMOND, M.D.

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SHIPBUILDING HERE AND ABROAD.

BY NAVAL-CONSTRUCTOR PHILIP HICHBORN, U. S. N.

THE federal and State laws of the United States have hitherto been singularly adverse to shipping interests, and while every other industry has received encouragement and support through a protective tariff that of shipbuilding has been left to take care of itself. A free-trade advocate, discussing the merits of the Cockran Bill "to encourage American shipping," declares that "there is very little sentiment in the steamship business," which might be further extended to include all sorts of business. Fortunately for American industries sentiment, which in this application stands for national pride, has made them self-supporting and has conferred benefits on all classes alike. Without this sentiment we should still be dependent upon the factories of the old world; and, as the genuine free-trader clamors for, be content to raise breadstuffs to barter for articles manufactured abroad.

American bottoms declined from 66.04 in 1860 to 20.61 per cent. in 1892; and exports in American bottoms were lowered from 66.5 to 12.3 per cent. Because of this lack of sentiment, the only four steamers flying the American flag in the Atlantic fleet were obliged to succumb, in 1884, to the hundreds of competing foreigners; and our Government paid in 1889 only about $110,000 for the transportation of mails in American vessels, while foreign steamship lines received over $510,000.

The bills recently passed by Congress allowing subsidies to American steamers that shall come up to certain requirements is a move in the right direction. It is admitted that the first cost of a ship here is greater than in Scotland and that the expense of running sailing and steam vessels is greater under the American flag than under any other flag; but in the first cost of the vessel the difference is actually not so great as to make ship-owning un-

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profitable, as our vessels compare favorably in every respect with similar ones built abroad for like purposes, and will last as long. Opponents at home argue that the first cost and running expenses of American vessels prevent their profitable employment, and our adversaries abroad, such as shipbuilders and underwriters, contend that American ships are lowest in the scale of duration and they therefore discriminate against American bottoms. It is evident that these charges of inferiority are baseless, for it is universally admitted that our iron and steel material is far superior to that used in Europe, and that the design and workmanship should be inferior to foreign work none but supporters of Lloyd's methods would have the hardihood to pretend.

It is only about seven years ago that the English press bubbled over with anticipated joy over the undoubted failures that would follow our attempt to build a new navy. On July 10, 1885, one paper (*The Engineer*) commented upon the proposition of Secretary Whitney to build a number of ships, and sneeringly concluded: "The question is, who is to build them?" Again on January 29, 1886, this same paper referring to the "Chicago," said: "If the boat is a success then it is clear that British engineers do not know their business." These adverse comments might be multiplied to an interminable extent, but the hopes of our enemies abroad were not realized; a dozen firms have built a fleet of men-of-war unsurpassed by any, and the "Chicago" has proved a success.

The following tables show the relative cost of ships in foreign navies and in the American navy, but it should be borne in mind that there are no two ships identical in every respect produced in the different navies, and that displacement and cost afford no fair basis of comparison. The speed, armament and protection vary with the ships.

The accompanying tables exhibit some remarkable facts. A fair idea of comparative cost can be obtained only from exactly similar ships built under like conditions and at the same time in the respective countries. It is quite evident that the "Charleston" and "Yorktown" did not realize any profit to the builders, and later-built ships may be taken as a nearer correct basis for comparisons. With the disadvantage of paying nearly twice as much for labor and one-third more for material, our shipbuilders have done remarkably well in producing ships

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COMPARATIVE COST OF UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN NAVAL VESSELS. HULL AND MACHINERY.

United States Navy.

Name.	Class.	Built.	Tons.	Horse Power.	Speed.	Contract Cost.	Cost per Ton.
Chicago	Cr.	1883	4,500	5,084	15.33	$889,000	$197
Boston	Cr.	1883	3,189	4,030	15.60	619,000	194
Dolphin	D. V.	1883	1,485	2,240	15.5	315,000	212
Newark	Cr.	1887	4,083	8,869	19.	1,248,000	305
Charleston	Cr.	1887	4,040	6,666	18.2	1,017,000	251
Baltimore	Cr.	1887	4,600	10,064	19.58	1,325,000	284
Philadelphia	Cr.	1888	4,324	8,815	19 68	1,325,000	306
Yorktown	G. B.	1887	1,700	3,660	16.65	455,000	262
Petrel	G. B.	1887	890	1,513	11.55	247,000	277
Montgomery	Cr.	1890	2,000	5,400	17.	612,500	306
Machias	G. B.	1890	1,050	1,660	14.	318,000	303
Cincinnati*	Cr.	1890	3,183	10,000	19.	†1,100,000	345
Olympia	Cr.	1890	5,500	13,500	20.	‡1,796,000	326
Columbia	Cr.	1890	7,350	21,000	21.	‡2,725,000	370

* Building in navy-yard,
† Complete except armament.
‡ Complete except armament and equipment.

Foreign Navies.

Nationality.	Name.	Class.	Built.	Tons.	Horse Power.	Speed.	Contract Cost.	Cost per Ton.
British.	Leander	Cr.	1880	4,300	5,500	17.	$793,335	$184
British.	Terpsichore	Cr.	1888	3,400	9,000	20.	781,610	229
British.	Surprise	D. V.	1883	1,650	3,030	17.	346,820	210
French.	Alger*	Cr.	1887	4,160	8,000	19.2	1,272,515	278
French.	Davoust*	Cr.	1887	3,027	9,000	20.	965,200	318
Spanish	Reine Regenta.	Cr.	1888	4,800	11,000	20.7	1,100,000	228
Germ	Princess Wilhelm.	Cr.	1885	4,300	8,000	18.	1,125,000	261
British.	Archer	T. Cr.	1885	1,770	3,500	17.	336,905	190
British.	Bellona	Cr.	1888	1,830	6,000	19.5	390,025	213
French.	Lalande	Cr.	1886	1,877	6,000	20.5	591,875	310
Germ	Wacht	D. V.	1887	1,240	4,000	20.	357,000	286
British.	Mercury*	Cr.	1876	3,730	7,290	18.	1,128,255	302
French.	Cecille	Cr.	1885	5,766	9,600	19.	1,498,010	259
French.	Le Tage	Cr.	1885	7,045	10,330	19.	1,767,005	250
British.	Endymion	Cr.	1888	7,350	12,000	19.75	1,508,540	205
British.	Blenheim	Cr.	1888	9,000	17,000	21.	1,829,910	209
British.	Blake*	Cr.	1888	9,000	17,000	21.	1,674,930	185
British.	Edgar*	Cr.	1888	7,350	12,000	19.75	1,616,120	220

* Built in dock yards and not including establishment charges in British Dock Yard.

at an advanced cost of only about 33 per cent. over British ships. That German and French ships make such an extraordinary showing in cost, notwithstanding the beggarly wages paid in those countries, strongly intimates that cheap labor is not so profitable in the end.

M. Dislere, writing in 1878 about British and French shipbuilding, said that the average wages paid in British dockyards

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were 6 fr. 7 c. ($1.34) per day, against 2 fr. 58 c. (51.6 cents) in French dockyards, yet the cost of work was about the same in the two countries. Captain Gambier, R. N., in *The Engineer* of March, 1887, describing shipbuilding and engine work in Italy, shows that it costs nine cents per pound for labor, and yet wages are much lower in Italy than in England. In December, 1890, the London *Times* claimed the relative cost per ton weight of hull to be: In England, £30 5s.; in France, £46 9s.; and in Russia, £87 5s. It gave also the cost of engines per horse power at £30 4s. in England, and in the United States at £56.

Coming down to a later date, the average wages in French dockyards in 1892 were 69 cents per day, and in British dockyards $1.21. For the corresponding time, the average wages paid in the navy yards of the United States may be assumed to be $2.40, and the wages thus stand in the following order:

United States,	$2.40 = 2 × England and 3½ × France.
England,	1.21 = ½ of U. S. and 1¾ × France.
France,	.69 = 28¾ per cent. of U. S. and 57 per cent. of England.

Now, as to material, the cost of steel for the ships built for the United States Navy during 1887 and 1888 was not less than 4 cents per pound against 2½ cents paid in England during the same period. Assuming that this same difference in cost extended to all other kinds of material used in ship and engine construction, the account stands 60 per cent. to the disadvantage of this country. Taking a ship like the "Charleston," as an example for comparison, with a similar British ship, the proportionate expenditures are 69 per cent. for labor and 31 per cent. for material of the sum total, which would make the cost of the American-built ship 72.6 per cent. greater than the British-built. The table of comparative cost of ships does not, however, give any such results, and, besides, it is conceded that every vessel built for our navy from a foreign ship is a great improvement on its prototype; that the material used is superior to that used in England; and that our ships are fitted up in a manner such as to make them luxurious in comparison with foreign ships. "The little extravagancies on our part," as Mr. Charles Cramp expressed it in a recent article in THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW —explaining the apparent greater cost of United States naval vessels—are quite properly and justly incurred, for life on board a ship is not comfortable at best, and there is no good reason why

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the ship's officers and crew should be made still more uncomfortable through stinginess on the part of the Government.

The foregoing tables prove conclusively that this country, unskilled as it was claimed to be in building ships of war, has been able not only to copy successfully but also to improve greatly upon the war vessels built abroad. Six years ago neither shafts, gun forgings nor armor cohld be produced in this country, and we were dependent upon England and Germany. At the present time we have reached not only the height of foreign achievements in ships, gun and armor, but have improved upon them; and if navy-building be permitted to go on, establishments will multiply and improve so as to make it not only possible but quite probable that the United States will become the factory of war material for such countries as now go to England, France and Germany.

As naval shipbuilding is the highest grade of ship construction, it follows that when occasion demands we shall be able to turn out duplicates of and improvements upon such ships as the "City of New York,"* "Fürst Bismarck," "Touraine" and "Teutonic." The building of large ocean steamers presents less difficulties than that of ships-of-war of moderate size. In the large ocean steamer everything is sacrificed for speed, and length, width and depth are allotted without stint. In a ship of 500 to 600 or more feet it is upon the marine engineer mainly that everything depends, and it would be passing strange if our talent in that line could not reproduce and improve upon the splendid engines in our new navy where the designer was cramped for room.

Until the American flag was hoisted on the "City of New York," * on February 22, there were no fast transatlantic steamers flying the stars and stripes. We have had, however, home-built steamships plying on the Pacific, south Atlantic and to the West Indies, not to omit the coasting and lake steamers, that are as fast, as commodious, and as safe as similar vessels (if such exist) abroad. The old "City of Peking," built in 1874, is a better and more profitable steamer than the "China," built in Glasgow in 1889, and placed on the same route as the "City of Peking." The following comparative data may be of interest

* Now the "New York."

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Data.	City of Peking.	China.
Built	1874	1889
Gross tons	5,079	5,480
Cargo capacity	4,000	3,600
Length over all, feet	423	466
Maximum speed	15	17
Coal, tons per day, at 11 knots	47	61
" " " " 12 "	56	68
" " " " 13 "	68	81
" " " " 14 "		100
" " " " 15 "		125

It will be noted that the coal consumption, so important a factor in successful steamship running, is decidedly in favor of the "City of Peking."

Taking a few instances of well-known American-built steamers, we find the "Louisiana," of 2,840 tons, consuming only 34 tons, at a speed of 14¾ knots; the "Mariposa," 3,158 tons, burning 50 tons to make 14½ knots, and the "San Pablo," 3,119 tons, requiring only 35 tons at 13 knots, and 40 tons to make 14 knots. Then there is the "Australia," 2,730 tons, a British steamer, chartered for the San Francisco and Melbourne route, originally fitted with compound engines, and with a consumption of 53 tons of coal making only 12 knots. In 1889 her engines and boilers were removed, and new triple expansion engines and boilers carrying 160 pounds were built in San Francisco and put in the ship. With this new machinery she is now making 14 knots on an expenditure of only 37 tons. From these examples it would appear as if American marine engine-builders have a considerable share of the knowledge of which Scotch builders claim a monopoly; while the performance of the old "City of Peking" would indicate that our marine engineers know more of the economics of steamship performance than the Clyde builders.

It is stated that no less than four steamers, duplicates of and possibly improvements upon the "City of Paris," are to be built at Cramp's Yard. The question of ability to build ships in this country is no longer to be mentioned in discussing the subject. It is simply a question of dollars and sentiment, and there seem to be men willing to make a practical demonstration of their patriotism and take the chances of American transatlantic travellers patronizing an American steamship line. To reproduce a new "City of Paris" in a shipyard on this side will require an advanced cost of about 20 per cent. upon

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$1,600,000, the reported cost of that steamer, which was built in Scotland.

In the following table the reported cost of some well-known transatlantic steamers is given together with such data as will facilitate computation of cost of similar ships built in this country:

COST OF TRANS-ATLANTIC AND OTHER STEAMERS BUILT IN GREAT BRITAIN AND GERMANY.

Name.	Built.	Iron or steel.	Gross tons.	Horse power.	Speed.	Total cost dollars.	Cost per gross ton.	Builders.
Britannic	1874	I	5,004	5,400	16.08	925,000	$185	Belfast.
Arizona	1879	I	5,164	6,357	17.	825,000	160	Glasgow.
Orient	"	I	5,365	5,595	14.	750,000	140	"
Alaska	1881	I	6,932	10,000	17.87	1,200,000	173	"
Servia	"	S	7,392	10,350	16.75	1,327,000	179	"
Oregon	1883	S	7,375	13,300	18.75	1,680,000	228	"
Aurania	"	S	7,269	8,500	16.85	1,380,000	190	Clydebank
America	1884	S	5,528	7,354	18.71	975,000	176	"
Etruria	"	S	8,120	14,321	18.80	1,695,000	209	"
City of Paris	1888	S	10,499	21,000	20.76	1,600,000	152	"
Augusta Victoria	1889	S	7,641	14,110	18.31	*878,715	*115	Stettin.
Teutonic	"	S	9,686	18,000	20.18	1,954,000	203	Belfast.
Fürst Bismarck	1890	S	8,716	16,000	19.86	*1,002,000	*115	Stettin.
Normannia	"	S	8,250	15,000	19.20	*948,750	*115	Glasgow.

Steamers with a * indicate cost of hull and machinery only. All others are complete with fittings ready for sea.

The cost of mild steel for shipbuilding purposes has been greatly reduced in this country during the past few years. From 6 cents per pound in 1885 it has fallen to 2 cents at the present time, while in Scotland the cost has also decreased in the same period from $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents to $1\frac{1}{3}$ cents. Thus the American shipbuilder has to pay 50 per cent. more for his steel than his competitor on the Clyde. The American workmen receive in Cramp's Yard about 80 per cent. higher wages than were paid to the workmen that built the "City of Paris."

It may therefore be accepted as a fact that in high-class work the shipbuilder in this country requires 20 per cent. more pay, but when it comes to what may be termed second and third class steamers, the Americans are "not in it" at all, and for very good reasons. Competition has greatly reduced the price of steamers in Scotland and the requirements of trade have demanded, or rather made it possible to introduce, a class of steam vessels known as "tramps."

In 1881 the price of transatlantic steamers was quoted at £22

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per gross ton for one of 2,000 gross tons, with cabin accommodations and 13 knots speed. In 1891 the price had fallen to about £15 per gross ton. In 1884 the following prices were quoted:

1st class transatlantic steamers	£28 5s.	Over 4,000 gross tons.
2d " " "	£22 17s.	
Cargo	£20 10s.	

In 1891 the price of first-class transatlantic steamers was £21 to £23. At the present time a well-built British steamer of 1,620 gross tons for cargo-carrying will cost £14 10s., and "tramp" steamers, such as are now competing with American-built steamers on the Brazilian steamship line, can be had for £10 per gross ton. The American steamer "Alliance," of 2,500 gross tons, which cost $382,378, has to compete with British "tramps" that cost only $125,000, and it is no wonder that such competition is ruinous to the American steamship-owner. In this instance, however, it is admitted by the president of the company that a mistake has been made in putting on new, large, expensive, and handsome passenger and mail steamships. There are no builders of "tramps" in this country, nor is there any demand for such ships; the nearest approach to them being the Lake steamers, of which several have of late made sad and disastrous records.

While it must be admitted that the extra cost of 20 to 40 per cent. on a steamer, according to her quality, is a serious drawback to shipbuilding, the disadvantage does not terminate with the completion of the ship. The ship-owner in America starts in with 20 to 40 per cent. extra cost and the Federal and State laws immediately cripple his opportunity for successful competition with the cheap ship-owner. Thus an American ship is taxed in its home port the same as any other property, while in England, for example, only the net profits on the vessel are taxed. Various other vexatious and expensive laws curtail the profits of American ship-owners, but it is in the running expenses that he is at the greatest disadvantage, and for this there is no remedy or salvation except through subsidy or protection.

It costs practically as much to build in France and Italy as it does in England, and the margin is not very great between the United States and Great Britain. The enormous difference existing between the wages of the several countries would naturally

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lead a person to different conclusions, but the proofs to the contrary are indisputable and not to be controverted. England is to Europe what the United States is to the whole world. To England every poor devil of a workman, underfed and underpaid at home, flocks and shares the work of those already on the ground. His condition is materially improved, but when, in the course of time, he has saved a few pounds wherewith to travel still farther west, he arrives in these United States and here he sees and learns what he never dreamed of—how immeasurably superior his condition may become to what it was. It is because the American workman must live differently to the European workman that he requires and receives better pay, but the return is made in intelligent and conscientious work, and the proof of it is shown in the cost of our navy ships.

Thus, while an American-built ship does cost more than a similar foreign vessel, it is equally true, too, that the sailing of ships under the American flag entails increased expenditures. Take, for example, the actual running expenses of the following representative sailing vessels of 850 tons register :

	American.	British.	French.	German.
Wages	$574.00	$350.25	$315.00	$325.75
Victualing	300.00	250.00	225.00	180.00
Total cost one month	$874.00	$600.25	$540.00	$505.75

To compete successfully against such odds is out of the question. American ship-builders are not permitted, nor would they be allowed, to put afloat such craft as are doing business under foreign flags, and our ship-owner cannot run an expensive ship with a well-paid and well-fed crew, against a cheap foreign ship with a cheap and badly-fed complement. In support of this latter remark reference is made to the testimony before the Labor Commission in London, on January 27, 1892, when Samuel Plimsoll stated that a report to the Board of Trade showed that the food of sailors was worse than workhouse or prison fare ; that condemned naval stores were purchased for ships' use, the price running from 2 cents to 3½ cents per pound for meat, and that "such food was killing the men by the scores and hundreds." Mr. Plimsoll's charges were directed against ocean-going craft such as we know here as "tramps."

President Ivins, of the United States and Brazilian Steamship Company, testified April 28, 1892, before the Senate Committee

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on Commerce, that the comparative running expenditures on two steamers, the "Seguranca," an American-built steamer, and the "Glengoyl," a British tramp, were per month :

Seguranca, wages $2,392; provisioning, $1,036.50			$3,428.50
Glengoyl, " 950; "		306.00	1,256.00
Difference in favor of the tramp			$2,172.50

Both ships carry the same amount of cargo.

Mr. Ivins further said : "Now the Government can do either of two things for us. It can say, from humanitarian reasons and reasons of large national policy : 'We want to protect all of our industries alike. We will protect you.' We are the only thing that I can see that is pretty nearly unprotected. Or else it can say: 'Buy your ships where you want and we will give them an American register.'"

It is clear that even if a ship-owner could purchase a steamer abroad at a cost much less than it would cost here, the running expenses would ultimately embarrass him. Therefore, in order to make shipping profitable, the national and State governments should encourage rather than discourage ship-owning. It would not have paid to start many branches of industry in this country had not the Government aided them by protection, and that is just what our shipping needs—liberal subsidies to make the American dollar go as far on the ocean highway as the English crown and the Prussian thaler.

PHILIP HICHBORN.

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GOOD AND BAD MOTHERS.

BY MRS. AMELIA E. BARR.

THE difference between good and bad mothers is so vast and so far-reaching that it is no exaggeration to say that the good mothers of this generation are building the homes of the next generation, and that the bad mothers are building the prisons. For out of families nations are made; and if the father be the head and the hands of a family, the mother is the heart. No office in the world is so honorable as hers, no priesthood so holy, no influence so sweet and strong and lasting.

For this tremendous responsibility mother-love has always been sufficient. The most ignorant women have trusted to it; and the most learned have found it potential when all their theories failed. And neither sage men nor wise women will ever devise anything to take the place of mother-love in the rearing of children. If there be other good things present, it glorifies them; if there be no other good thing—it is sufficient. For mother-love is the spirit of self-sacrifice even unto death, and self-sacrifice is the meat and drink of all true and pure affection.

Still this momentous condition supposes some central influence, some obligation, on the child's part which will reciprocate it; and this central influence is found to be in *obedience*. There was once a child in Jewry who was called "wonderful," and yet the most significant fact recorded of his boyhood is, that he "was subject unto his parents." Indeed nothing else is told of the child, and we are left to conclude that in the pregnant fact of his boyish obedience lay the secret of his future perfect manhood. Unselfish love in the mother! cheerful obedience in the children! in whatever home these forces are constantly operative, that home can not be a failure. And mother-love is not of the

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right kind, nor of the highest trend, unless it compels this obedience.

The assertion that affectionate firmness and even wholesome chastisement is unnecessary with our advanced civilization is a specious and dangerous one. The children of to-day have as many rudimentary vices as they had in the days of the patriarchs; as a general thing they are self-willed and inclined to evil from their cradles; greedy without a blush, and ready to lie as soon as they discover the use of language. A good mother does not shut her eyes to these facts; she accepts her child as imperfect, and trains it with never-ceasing love and care for its highest duties. She does not call impudence "smartness," nor insubordination "high spirit," nor selfishness "knowing how to take care of itself," nor lying and dishonesty "sharpness." She knows if the child is to be father to the man, what kind of a man such a child will make.

How to manage young children; how to strengthen them physically; how best to awaken their intellects, engage their affections and win their confidence; how to make home the sweetest spot on earth, a place of love, order and repose, a temple of purity where innocence is respected, and where no one is permitted to talk of indecent subjects or to read indecent books; these are the duties of a good mother: and her position, if so filled, is one of dignity and grave importance. For it is on the hearthstone she gives the fine healthy initial touch to her sons and daughters that is not effaced through life, and that makes them blessed in their generation.

There is another duty, a very sacred one, which some mothers, however good in all other respects, either thoughtlessly or with mistaken ideas, delegate to others—the religious training of their children. No Sunday-School and no Church can do it for them. The child that learns "Our Father" at its mother's knee; that hears from mother's lips the heroic and tender stories of the Bible, has a well spring of religious faith in his soul that no after life, however hard and fast and destructive, can dry up. It is inconceivable then how a mother can permit any other woman to deprive her of an influence over her children nothing can destroy; of a memory in their lives so sweet, that when every other memory is withered and approaching decay, it will still be fresh and green; yes, even to the grave's mouth. Family!

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Country! Humanity! these three, but the greatest of the three is Family; and the heart of the family is the good mother. Happy the children who have one! With them

> "faith in womankind
> Beats with their blood, and trust in all things high
> Comes easy to them."

But if the grand essential to a good mother be self-denying, self-effacing love, this is a bad era for its development. Selfishness and self-seeking is the spirit of the time, and its chilling poison has infected womanhood, and touched even the sacred principle of maternity. In some women it assumes the form of a duty. They feel their own mental culture to be of supreme importance, they wish to attend lectures and take lessons, and give themselves to some special study. Or the enslaved condition of their own sex troubles them; they bear on their minds the oppressed shop girls of America, or the secluded Odalisques in some Eastern seraglio, or they have ecclesiastic proclivities and take the chair at church meetings, or political ones and deliver lectures before their special club on women's disabilities. In these and many other ways they put the natural mission of womanhood aside as an animal instinct, not conducive to their mental development.

Now, no one will object to women's devoting themselves to works of religion and charity; but this devotion should come before marriage. If they have assumed the position of wifehood, it is a monstrous thing to hold themselves degraded by its consequences; or to consider the care of children a waste of their own life. The world can do without learned women, but it cannot do without good wives and mothers; and when married women prefer to be social ornaments and intellectual amateurs, they may be called philanthropists and scholars, but they are nevertheless moral failures, and bad mothers.

Society has put maternity out of fashion also, and considering the average society woman, it is perhaps just as well. No children are more forlorn and more to be pitied than the waifs of the woman whose life is given up to what she calls "pleasure." Humbler-born babies are nursed at their mother's breast and cradled in her loving arms. She teaches them to walk and to read. In all their pain she soothes them; in all their joys she has a part; in all their wrongs "mother" is an ever-present help and com-

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forter. The child of the fashionable woman is too often committed at once to the care of some stranger, who for a few dollars a month is expected to perform the mother's duty for her. If it does not suck the vitiated, probably diseased, milk of some peasant, it has the bottle and india-rubber mouth piece, when the woman in charge chooses to give it. But she is often in a temper, or sleepy, or the milk is not prepared, or she is in the midst of a comfortable gossip, or she is dressing or feeding herself, and it is not to be expected she will put any sixteen-dollar-a-month baby before her own comfort or pleasure.

The child cannot complain of hunger, it can only cry, and very likely may be struck for crying. What these neglected little ones suffer from thirst is a matter painful to inquire into. The nurse accustomed to drink her tea and her beer at all hours does not herself patronize cold water, and she never imagines the child needs it. Many a baby after being tortured for hours with a feverish consuming thirst passes into the doctor's hands before the trouble is recognized. But if the child's own mother had been nursing it she would not have been long in finding out the cause of its impatient, urgent fretfulness.

Let any tender-hearted woman go into the parks and watch one of these unhappy children in the care of its nurse. The hot sun beats down on the small upturned face, and the ignorant creature in charge goes on with her flirtation, or her gossip, or her novel. The child may be at shrieking point from lying long in one position, but there is no one to comprehend its necessity. During those awful hours in which its teeth force their way through hot and swollen gums—hours which would bring from adults unwriteable exclamations—the forsaken little sufferer is at the mercy of some sleepy, self-indulgent woman, who has no love for it. Why, indeed, should she? If it were a matter of catechism, how many educated women would be capable of nursing good-naturedly for weeks a fretful, sick child not their own?

As for these neglected babies of pleasure-seeking women, they suffer terribly, but then their mothers are having what they consider a perfectly lovely time, posing at the opera or gyrating in some ballroom, exquisitely dressed, and laughing as lightly as if there were no painful echoes from their neglected nurseries. For no nurse is apt to complain of her baby, she knows her business

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and her interest too well for that; she prefers to speak comfortable words, and vows the "little darling grows better and better every hour, God bless it!" and, so assured, the mother goes airily away, telling herself that her nurse is a perfect treasure. Whatever other nurses may do, she knows that her nurse is reliable. The fact is, that even where there are children in a nursery able to complain of the wrongs and cruelties they have to endure they very seldom dare to do so. Mamma is a dear, beautiful lady, very far off; nurse is an ever-present power, capable of making them suffer still more. And mamma does not like to hear tales, she always appears annoyed at anything against nurse. They look into their mother's face with eyes full of their sad story, if she only had the heart to understand; but they dare not speak, and very soon they are remanded back to their cruel keeper with a kiss, and an injunction to "be good, and do as nurse tells them."

Consider the women to whom this class of mothers delegate their high office—an office for which hardly any love or wisdom is sufficient. It would scarcely be possible in the whole world to find any persons more unfit for it. Taking this class as a whole, these very mothers are never tired of expatiating upon its gross immorality, deceitfulness, greed and dishonesty; yet they do not hesitate to leave the very lives of their children in the charge of these women, whose first lessons to them are lying and deceit. It is a hideous system, and how hideous must that life called "pleasure" be, that can thus put aside love, reason, conscience, and break to pieces a natural law so strong that in its purity it frequently proves more powerful than the law of self-preservation. Writing on this subject, Frederick James Grant, F. R. C. S., in his bold and original book, *From Our Dead Selves*, tells of a fashionable mother who put her first child out to nurse, and who, when her second died at birth and was brought to her bedside in its coffin, was entirely interested—not in the child—but in the pretty lining and covering of the coffin. For it is one of the startling facts of this condition of motherhood that the poor infant left to some dreadful shrew, body and soul, has the very best care taken of its frills and coats and of the wraps in its baby carriage. For these things will be seen by other people's servants and commented on, and are therefore worthy of attention.

It is a strange state of society which tolerates this awful transfer of duty, and society will have the bill to pay as well as the

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cruel mother. These neglected children, whatever their birth, come really from the dangerous classes, and have a likelihood to drift there. For the first moral training of a child is the most important of all, and in these cases it is given by women gross both through ignorance and vice; whose relatives are very likely at the same time living in suspicious localities, or in prison wards. And, naturally enough, their first lessons to the children under them are to lie, to deceive, to commit small pilferings and not be found out. They are ordered not to carry tales out of the nursery, or let mamma know what nurse does not want known. Bad language, bad habits, hatred, petty conciliations, meanness of every kind, are in the curriculum of any nursery left in the care of the women usually found in them.

No one need imagine that the evil thus wrought can be eradicted in future years by a higher class of teachers. The vicious seed is sown; it is next to impossible to go through the field of a child's mind and gather it up again. It has taken root, and unless it can be crowded out by a nobler growth, the harvest is certain. The mother then who prefers pleasure and society to her children, whom she hands over to wicked and cruel nurses, is herself wicked and cruel. She may stand before the world as the personification of refinement and delicacy and elegance, but she is really no better than her substitute; and she has no right to expect that her children will be better. In some favorable cases there may come a redeeming power in future years, but in the main they will drift downward to their first moral impressions; and when they have become bad and unhappy men and women, they will not scruple to say "from our mother cometh our misery." These are hard truths, yet one-half has not been told. For if it were not for the abounding number of good mothers both rich and poor, this class of women would undermine all virtue, and everything lovely and of good report.

There was once an idea that mothers were the antiseptic quality in society, that they preserved its moral tone, by insisting that the language used and the subjects discussed before them should be such as were suitable for virtuous women. But there is one kind of bad mother to whom questionable subjects seem highly suitable. She discusses them without reserve in the presence of her daughters, and she makes her drawing room the forum for women with queer domestic views, for "Physical Cul-

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ture" women, and such-like characters. The things our grandmothers went down to their graves without knowing she talks about in unmistakable terms before unmarried girls. A certain mother who boldly defended her opinion that "girls should not be kept ignorant as a means for keeping them innocent," permitted her own daughter to be present during all the unsavory scandal of Vanity Fair. The child learned to watch with interest the doings of women of many seasons, and to listen with composure to very questionable stories. Before she was twelve years old she had become suspicious of the conduct of every woman, and when her teacher one day asked her "Who was Moses?" she answered promptly "The son of Pharoah's daughter." "Not the son," corrected the teacher, "the adopted son. Pharoah's daughter found him in the river Nile." "*So* she said," replied this premature woman; suspicions of women's actions and a ready assumption of the very worst motives for them, being the lessons she had deduced from knowledge imparted before mind and experience were capable of receiving it.

It is often said that "ignorance is not innocence." True, but neither is knowledge innocence; it is most frequently the first step of guiltiness. What good can come of little children knowing the things which belong to maturity? Is any girl sweeter or even safer for knowing about the undercurrent of filth below the glittering crust of gilded society. The Chinese quarter is a fact, yet is there a mother who would like her daughter to visit it? But if it is not fit to visit, it is not fit to talk about. No one is ever the better for knowing of evil, unless they can do something to remedy it.

A good mother will shield her children from the consequences of their own ignorance, physical and moral, and she will just as carefully shield them from knowledge which is hurtful because premature; just as fruit green and unripe is hurtful. And no guardianship is too close for this end. Mothers will generally admit this fact as regards the children of other people, but as to their own brood they cradle themselves in a generous belief of its incorruptibility. Their girls would never do as other girls do; and their girls are consequently permitted a license which they would think dangerous for any but their own daughters. Then some day there is a paragraph in one of the papers and the men blame the man, and the women blame the girl, and all the time the

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mother is probably the guiltiest of the parties. She has stimulated her daughter's imagination in childhood, she has left her to the choice of her companions in youth, she has trusted her sacred duty to circumstances, she has indulged a vague hope concerning the honor and virtue of humanity, and thus satisfied her indolent neglect. But what right had she to expect that men would revere the treasure she herself left unguarded?

For there has been no special race made for this era; what Adam, Jacob, Samson and David were; what Eve, Sarah, Rachel, Jael and Bathsheba were, the men and women of to-day are, in all their essentials. Circumstances only have made them to differ; and nature laughs at circumstances, and goes back at any crisis to her first principles. Indeed, the good mother of to-day, instead of relaxing, must increase her care over her children. For never since the world began has youth been so catered to, never has it been surrounded by so many open temptations, never so much flattered, and yet at the same time never have the reins of discipline been so far relaxed. Now the spirit we evoke we must control, or else we must become its slave. If we are no longer to reverence the grey hairs of age; if young men are to drive the chariot of the sun, and young women are to be allowed to strip the Tree of Knowledge of good and evil, then it is high time some system of education was invented which will put old heads upon young shoulders. Alas, this can never be, for education is a long and composite process, made up of home influences, surrounding circumstances, and early associations. When books and schools and teachers shall have done all they possibly can, high above every Gamaliel will sit the good mother; the first influence, the first teacher, the first friend and the last.

AMELIA E. BARR.

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HOW SHALL THE PENSION LIST BE REVISED?

BY REPRESENTATIVE R. P. C. WILSON, OF MISSOURI, CHAIRMAN OF THE HOUSE COMMITTEE ON PENSIONS; GEN. S. S. BURDETT, PAST COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE GRAND ARMY OF THE REPUBLIC, AND COL. W. C. CHURCH, EDITOR OF THE "ARMY AND NAVY JOURNAL."

HON. R. P. C. WILSON:

THAT the condition of the nation's finances is such as to imperatively demand a material reduction of expenditures or a largely increased revenue to avoid an actual deficit in the Treasury is conceded on all sides, and the sentiment of the country seems unmistakably to point towards a more economical policy in the appropriation of the public money, rather than to increased taxation to maintain the present high rate of governmental disbursements.

The necessities of the situation seem, therefore, to require a close scrutiny of every item of expense, with a view to reduction wherever the same can be accomplished without injury to the public service or a failure to recognize the just obligations of the Government.

The pension roll, representing, as it does, by far the greatest item in the nation's annual bill of expenses, and bearing a large number of names which have no legal or moral right to be there, is just now drawing an important share of the public attention as a promising field for retrenchment and reform. The question as to how the pension list can be revised so as to remove therefrom the fraudulent and undeserving, and at the same time work no injury to the worthy veteran, is a serious and perplexing one, and many who have given the subject much careful thought find it difficult of solution.

My observation leads me to believe that the operations of the Act of June 27, 1890, have a great deal to do with producing the prevailing sentiment against the vast and ever-growing pension

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list, and it is to a change in the present construction of that Act that I look for a probable remedy for some of the evils complained of. The report of the Commissioner of Pensions for the fiscal year 1892 shows that on June 30, 1892, 293,068 invalid pensions had been allowed under the Act above named, and many thousands of names have been added to the roll since that date. The Act provides among other things that "all persons who served ninety days or more in the military or naval service of the United States during the War of the Rebellion, and who have been honorably discharged therefrom, and who are now or may hereafter be suffering from a mental or physical disability of a permanent character, not the result of their own vicious habits, which incapacitates them from the performance of manual labor in such a degree as to *render them unable to earn a support*, shall . . . be placed upon the list of invalid pensioners of the United States, and be entitled to receive a pension not exceeding $12 per month, and not less than $6 per month, proportioned to the degree of disability to earn a support." The words "in such a degree as to be unable to earn a support" should, it is contended (and apparently with much reason), have been held to mean that the applicant shall be wholly incapacitated by mental or physical disability from obtaining a livelihood, in order to secure the maximum rating of $12 per month, and that the lesser ratings under the Act ($6, $8 and $10 per month) should of course be allowed for proportionate disabilities.

Under the present construction of this law there is no discrimination, within the limits of the rates named, between the allowances for disabilities shown to have originated in the service and line of duty, and the allowances for those which were incurred long after the close of the war. Thousands of pensioners now on the list receive the highest rating allowed by the Act under discussion without being wholly (or totally) disabled; on the contrary, they are able to and do continue in the regular pursuit of their chosen avocations and earn for themselves and families an adequate and comfortable support.

Should the view above referred to as to the proper construction of the Act prevail, it is believed that the result would be to strike from the list the names of many beneficiaries who did not render the service or suffer the disabilities necessary to give a just title to the bounty of the Government, and the saving to the

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public treasury by such a construction would no doubt be very large.

A return to biennial medical examinations suggests itself as another practical way of separating some of the goats from the sheep. Prior to June 21, 1879, those invalid pensioners whose disabilities were not of a permanent character or unchanging in degree were, every two years, subjected by law to a careful medical examination to determine their title to continuance on the roll, but by an Act passed on June 21, 1879, these biennial examinations were abolished, and there is now no adequate way by which a pensioner's partial or complete recovery can become known to the Government unless he invites a medical examination by filing an application for an increase of pension, and this a pensioner who knows his disabilities no longer exist is not likely to do. The remedy for this lies with the Congress, but if anything is done to revive the biennial examinations careful account should be taken of the probable large increase in the appropriations for examining-surgeons' fees caused thereby. It may be stated in this connection that the applicants and pensioners themselves formerly paid the fees of the examining surgeons, but now the Government pays them, and I am not an advocate of a return to the original method.

Regulations should be adopted by the Pension Bureau by which favoritism and personal bias in the reports of examinations by the Government's physicians will be prevented, and to this end the suggestions to the House Committee on Appropriations made at the present session by the Medical Referee of the Pension Bureau that the Bureau be represented in examinations throughout the country by competent physicians detailed from the Washington office may, upon close examination, be found to be worthy of trial.

Many pensions are now drawn and rated on the findings and recommendations of examining-boards made up of the family physicians and personal and political friends of the persons examined. The certificates of medical examination are not held to be confidential by the Pension Bureau, but are easy of access to the pensioners and their representatives, and the examining surgeons know this.

All cases of reported fraud should be promptly investigated by the Department through the medium of the force of special ex-

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aminers in the field, but in no instance should a pensioner's name be dropped from the roll on any ground until he has been allowed the widest latitude to show his right to a continuance of his pension.

The proposition has been advanced that a commission be appointed to go over the allowed claims now in the files of the Pension Office, but in the light of the enormous number of such cases (876,068 on June 30, 1892, with many thousands allowed since then), and of the fact that they represent the labors of a great bureau for thirty or more years, I fear that such a commission would have to be unwieldy in its proportions and expensive in operation to accomplish any results, and even then it is doubtful whether more than a superficial skimming over would be the outcome. Aside from the claims allowed under the law of June 27, 1890, which of course would be affected by the change of construction heretofore suggested, it would, to my mind, be utterly impracticable to attempt a wholesale readjudication of these admitted cases.

There can be no doubt that the deserving soldier who went unflinchingly to the front at his country's call, and while enduring the hardships of camp, march, and conflict incurred wounds or other permanent disabilities, regards the pension list as a roll of honor, and earnestly desires, with all other good citizens, the adoption of such measures by Congress, or by those charged with the administration of the laws, as will purge the list of all those who have been placed thereon through fraud or misrepresentation; but the undeserving class, which, unfortunately, constitutes a considerable proportion of the list, will never relinquish the benefits wrongfully acquired without a bitter and determined struggle, and many well-meaning and conscientious men in public life, who acknowledge and earnestly deplore the existence of pension abuses, will hesitate to align themselves on the side of corrective measures for fear of a possible adverse effect upon their political fortunes. I contend, therefore, that the administration of the pension laws should, if possible, be completely divorced from politics, and while I have not yet been able to fully satisfy my mind as to the practicability of the change, it may be found, upon careful consideration and investigation, that the transfer of the bureau to the War Department, proposed in a recently offered (but not adopted)

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amendment to the Pension Appropriation Bill, and to the care of a courageous, able, and fair-minded army officer, would be a step in the right direction.

The demand that the pension list be maintained in its ideal status as a roll of honor is not a partisan one, but voices the sentiment of the conservative and enlightened people of the country without regard to party affiliations.

These views as to the best methods of accomplishing a just revision of the pension list are confessedly tentative and of so general a character that they may be of but little value in pointing out the proper road to be followed, but I desire to urge that, whatever may be done, no violent or vindictive hand should be laid on the roll. The matter should be approached in a just, dispassionate, and liberal spirit, and no pains should be spared to preserve inviolate the rights of every worthy veteran. The country would deprecate any vicious attack on the pension roll, and any party that advocates such a course will meet with the just condemnation of the people.

To the men whose sufferings and sacrifices led to the preservation of the Union the country owes a debt of gratitude which can never be fully repaid, and I earnestly urge that no backward step be taken by the Government in the material recognition of that great obligation. From the war of the Revolution down to the present time it has been the policy of our lawmakers to treat our soldiers liberally, and there should be no departure from that policy now.

R. P. C. WILSON.

PAST COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF BURDETT:

THE body of our pension laws and the present methods of their administration are the outgrowth of the sense of justice which plainly demands that permanent impairment of capacity to earn a livelihood resulting from service should be, in some measure, compensated by a money payment from the common treasury; of the sentiment of gratitude towards those who in the behalf of all who remained loyal assumed in the field the burden of the common defence; of the engagements and promises which rival parties and politicians seeking the soldier vote thought it necessary to enter upon to secure party or personal success; and of the efforts of the veteran beneficiaries themselves, made

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through individual exertion or the agency of their organized associations.

Whatever of praise or blame may be due to these several agencies considered separately, it is undeniable that the result reached by their joint influence is the cause of much present criticism and of some alarm.

The sums required to satisfy the allowed claims are very great, pending applications are many, and the field from which they may yet be gathered is far from exhausted. How considerable a factor the pension list has come to be is just now more sensibly appreciated than ever before. A new party has come into power, pledged to a revolution in financial and industrial legislation and policies. It can take no step towards the accomplishment of its purposes that will not first and chiefly demand consideration of the sums necessary to be raised for pension payments. The necessities of that service may prevent or delay the fulfilment of beneficial purposes entertained by that party, and they will be sure to be held to answer for the non-fulfilment of promises, not wisely given perhaps, but which the voters nevertheless expect to be redeemed.

The present dissatisfaction is therefore likely to continue and may tend to diminish the honorable regard in which the living and the dead of the great struggle have thus far been held by the masses of their countrymen. The stage of denunciation has been reached. It is chiefly directed against the veteran beneficiaries. That which is most virulent is the utterance of the class who believe that the war for the Union was wrong; that which is greatest in volume falls from those who go no further than to read the totals of the annual appropriations, but fail to recall that the foundations were laid in a struggle which itself was vast in its every agency, and especially in the hosts who marched to battle.

Four years of offensive war, which rallied two and a half millions of men to the colors of but one of the combatants, meant resulting obligations in due proportion. Unfortunately for the veteran, the levy made for his benefit is a present burden, the service by which he earned his dole is but a memory. The events of thirty years ago are in these rushing times coming to be counted as among the antiquities.

The courses of thought which have controlled the veterans of

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the late war on the general subject of pensions may best be gathered from an analysis of the proceedings of their organized societies. The greatest of these, and the most truly representative, is the Grand Army of the Republic. It was instituted in 1866, and has held its encampments each succeeding year. It has a present membership of half a million comrades. The first action looking towards influencing legislation was taken at the eighth annual session held in 1874, when a resolution was adopted urging Congressional action "for increased pensions to wounded and disabled soldiers and sailors, and especially to those totally disabled."

Seven years afterwards, at the annual session in 1881, attention was called by resolution to the great delay in the settlement of pension claims, and a committee was appointed to inquire into the subject. That committee, in its report to the next encampment (1882), recited the fact that it was the first accredited representative of the order which had ever "come directly in contact with the law-making power." Its work had been to persuade Congress to increase the clerical force employed in the adjustment of pension claims. From that time forward a pension committee charged with the duty of caring for veteran interests has been regularly appointed by each succeeding encampment.

From the reports of these committees, and the action taken thereon, it may be stated that the later energies of the organization have been mainly exercised in obtaining such an enlargement of the old law as would add to the pension list "all honorably-discharged soldiers and sailors, actually disabled, without requiring proof that the disability arose in the line of duty during service; the widows of all honorably-discharged veterans, and an increase of pensions allowed to minor children."

The passage of the Act of June 27, 1890, commonly called the disability bill, which dealt with these purposes, was largely aided by the pension committee. It may be confidently stated that the Grand Army, in large majority, holds to the justice of this act. It should, however, be noted that a considerable minority within the ranks of the organization refuse their consent to the departure thus taken from the old ground of limiting pensionable disabilities to such as occurred during the service. This minority has vehemently opposed the endorsement of projects

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looking to the enactment of a service pension law which would at once add every living veteran to the rolls, an honorable discharge being the sole test of the right to be there.

Some of the grounds of objection have been that, whilst grants of public money for injuries received when prosecuting the nation's business of war were part of the contract of enlistment, payments on other grounds, especially on that of service rendered or disabilities subsequently contracted, are, at best, a gratuity, and very like a charity. The moral right to so dispose of the public funds was questioned. The immense burdens such a policy would impose were perceived, and it was feared that the glorious name of the Volunteers might fade under the imputation of mercenary motives.

The progress of thought and purpose in the Grand Army on pension subjects is interesting.

The early gatherings were composed of men fresh from the field who were yet comparatively young and strong. They were proud of their service. They sought no pecuniary reward. The charitable features of their organization had in view the assistance one comrade could give another. It was eight years before it occurred to them to intervene between the government and their disabled comrades, and then only in aid of the most seriously injured, and in line with the government's original contract. The next step arose out of their just concern for the prompt settlement of pending applications. It was not until the tremendous inroads caused by the strain of war began to manifest themselves by the premature decrepitude of many of their comrades, and the common poor-houses began to know their presence, that the Grand Army took up the question of securing pensions for those disabled and needy veterans who could not trace their ailments back to the very period of service. The purpose was to provide for such as these, and within the limits of that purpose the popular heart has willingly given its consent.

The Act of June 27, 1890, was addressed to this end, but, while it reached and relieved the distressed, it gave like advantage to all qualified applicants without regard to the state of their fortunes who could show themselves "to be suffering from a mental or physical disability of a permanent character . . . which incapacitates them from the performance of manual labor in such a degree as to render them unable to earn a support."

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The omission of limitations confining the benefits of the Act to needy applicants only was, in part, the result of the persistent fight which the veterans kept up against any enactment requiring a declaration of poverty as a condition precedent to the grant of a pension, and of the purpose on the part of many to make the law as nearly as might be an approach towards a service pension Act. There is little reason to expect that the situation growing out of this Act will be changed. The people will be slow to insist on the official classification of any of their defenders as paupers. Legislators will take note of this along with the fact that a million old-soldier voters are personally or sentimentally interested in the question, and there is the further fact always to be appealed to that service pensions have been given to the survivors of all our wars. The Act of January 29, 1887, puts upon the rolls at eight dollars a month every surviving officer and enlisted man who served in the war with Mexico and who reaches the age of sixty-two years. The Congress which has just adjourned increased the allowance to twelve dollars per month.

No such discrimination against the men who fought for the preservation of the Union as would result from the repeal or serious modification of the Act of 1890 is possible, while the Mexican and other service pension laws remain in force.

The outcry against the laws is not so great in volume or nearly so vehement in form as is that against the method and result of their administration. It is insisted in many quarters that the rolls are encumbered by names not lawfully entitled to be there. If this is true, it is indeed an outrage which calls for prompt correction. But the very vehemence, excess, and even rudeness, of some of the assailants give warning that their charges ought not to be admitted in any measure until investigation has been had. If matters are as bad as they are asserted to be, there have been worse than mistake and mismanagement; there have been fraud and conspiracy. That all the probabilities are against this is indicated by the dearth of facts which the most hostile have been able to produce. Nevertheless iteration and reiteration have had their effect upon the popular mind. There ought to be searching inquiry through dispassionate (not partisan) agencies. The great body of veteran survivors will welcome this.

In the meantime the situation might as well be faced. Relief to the taxpayer is to come from the scythe of the great reaper.

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The beneficiaries are old men now. If not by the actual count of years, they are yet old because of the exposures and decrepitudes which come from their service. All but one of the great leaders in battle are dead; a division of their followers joins them every year. A little patience and the account will be closed.

S. S. BURDETT.

COLONEL CHURCH:

TO DECIDE as to how our pension list should be revised is to determine one of the most difficult problems that can vex legislation. The question is fortunately one free from partisan suggestion. To neither of our great political parties belongs the exclusive credit of generosity towards old soldiers, and upon neither can be charged the sole responsibility for what may be considered unwise liberality. In the closing hours of the last Congress two distinguished Democratic Senators, Mr. Palmer, of Illinois, and Mr. Gorman, of Maryland, united in the declaration "that there seems to be a rivalry in both the great political parties to see how far they can go in the matter of pension legislation." President Cleveland in 1887 signed one of the most liberal pension bills we have ever had, the one granting a pension to all survivors of the Mexican War who had served sixty days in Mexico or en route thereto. It was thirty-nine years after the close of this war when a service pension was granted to these men who secured for us our great southwestern territory, with its enormous store of mineral wealth. Such recognition of service was withheld from the soldiers of the Revolution for fifty-nine years, and from the survivors of 1812 for fifty-seven years. In accordance with these precedents it should be granted to the survivors of our last war somewhere between 1904 and 1922.

We need not be embarrassed in revising our pension list by consideration for any public sentiment in opposition to it among the "duty soldiers" of the War. That old soldier Andrew Jackson declared in a message to Congress, recommending a careful scrutiny into the circumstances and claims of every person drawing a pension, "the honest veteran has nothing to fear from such a scrutiny, while the fraudulent claimant will be detected and the public treasury relieved to an amount far greater than has heretofore been suspected." A veteran of our last war, Major-General O. O. Howard, whose empty sleeve bears testimony

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to the reality of his service, quotes with approval the declaration of a Post of the Grand Army of the Republic, in New York City, that "as much real patriotism may be displayed by refraining in times of peace from inflicting unnecessary burdens on the country as by coming to her defense in time of war;" and the further declaration that "any soldier who applies for, or accepts a pension that he does not justly deserve for disability incurred, or receives as a reward for service when he is too old to labor, is guilty of conduct likely to injure the men who were and are willing, without any reward beyond the approval of their own consciences and that honorable fame which is dear to every patriot, to give their blood and their lives for their country." General Howard is undoubtedly correct in his statement that this declaration embodies the common sentiment of living soldiers.

The men who served faithfully from a sentiment of patriotic devotion are unwilling to accept the theory that military service is necessarily demoralizing, or destructive to health, or that—the casualties of war apart—it diminishes a man's ability to compete with his fellows in the struggle for existence.

Who is there among those who served honestly in either of our great armies, North or South, who does not find occasion every day to thank God for the lessons he learned in the army? Call the roll of the survivors of our great war and from each community would respond the men who are there held in the highest respect, not only as good citizens, but as leaders in every undertaking that demands ability of the highest order. They have held and still hold the chief places in our cabinets, in the administration of public affairs, National and State. They sit upon the bench; they manage great industrial enterprises, and the country owes its progress in every department, during the years since the war, to them more than to any single class in the community. Their history illustrates the truth, too little heeded in this country, that one of the best of all trainings for the actual business of life is that obtained in military service. As self-respecting men they are opposed to any legislation which tends to make such service synonymous with pauperism. They ask only that the country shall redeem its promise to provide for those whose services have actually incapacitated them from providing for themselves and their families, that it may be saved from the dishonor of permitting Belisarius to beg his daily bread. They

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recognize the generous spirit in which this demand has been responded to, and they are ready to do their part to save the country from the abuse of its bounty.

In considering then the difficult subject of revising our pension list, it is well to have it understood at the outset that much that we suffer from the unwise bestowal of pensions results from that disregard of military ideas and military methods which is chronic in this country. It is a fundamental maxim with the army that a distinction should be made between those who loyally accept the restraints of discipline, and those who for any cause seek to shirk them. The two cardinal sins in the military calendar are malingering and desertion. The man who indulges in them, and thus puts a double burden of responsibility and danger upon his fellows, deprives himself of all claim to consideration.

Congress in its legislation has shown itself unwilling to be guided by the military sentiment that condemns these vices—a sentiment as old as war—as essential to the formation of the character of the true soldier as chastity is to the preservation of true womanhood. Our law makers in their large bounty have ignored the distinction between the duty soldier and the "coffee-cooler,"—the man who lingers in the rear to take his comfort or to escape hardship and risk. It has given undue weight to what is known as a "hospital record," ignoring the very grave question as to whether it is really bound to provide to the end of time for those who burdened the muster rolls with their incapacity, and who are largely responsible for our enormous military expenditures during 1861–5, amounting in the closing year of the war to an annual outlay of one thousand millions of dollars.

Is it not time that we should recognize the fact that our methods of conducting war in disregard of sound military principles are unnecessarily wasteful, and that we are bearing the burdens of our mistakes in a pension list now numbering a total of 876,068, and making rapid progress to a grand aggregate exceeding a million, if it does not reach the twelve hundred thousand figure predicted for it? We still have on the rolls twenty widows and two daughters of the Revolution, the last two survivors of that war having died in 1869, aged, respectively, 105 and 109. There are 165 survivors and 6,657 widows of the war of 1812, and 15,215 survivors and 7,282 widows of the Mexican

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War. This leaves 687,862 survivors and 158,893 dependent relatives of the War of the Rebellion, with 426,398 claimants for pensions for this and earlier wars on the list for consideration at the date of the last report, October 12, 1892, besides 361,663 claimants for increase of pensions.

In the five States of Washington, Oregon, Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas there are now nearly three times as many pensioners as there were soldiers furnished by these States to the War, viz.: 72,960 pensioners to 26,286 soldiers. This is due, of course, to the movement of population to the West, but it is a striking illustration of the extent of our pension roll. There are 38,330 pensioners in the ten States that formed the Southern Confederacy, and 108,436 in the six States that held to a divided allegiance, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, West Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware. In all 146,766 in the old slave States. The banner State on the pension record, Ohio, has 93,386 pensioners, Pennsylvania has 85,370, New York following with 77,920, Indiana with 65,120, Illinois with 63,230, Michigan with 42,258, and Wisconsin with 26,382. The annual payment to pensioners, excluding arrears of pension, amounted last year to $116,877,867.24, and it will probably soon reach a round one hundred and fifty millions. Including arrears, it will probably exceed for a time an average of two hundred millions annually.

It is much easier to show, from the statement of such facts as these, that our pension list should be carefully revised, to the end that it may be made a roll of honor, than it is to suggest feasible methods of revision. One thing seems possible, and that is to so codify our pension laws as to make them intelligible and consistent. Under their present interpretation there are, or were at the date of the last detailed report, no less than one hundred and nineteen grades of pay between the extremes of one dollar a month and seventy-two dollars a month, with three other grades of $100, $166.66⅔, and $466.66⅔ a month, supplied by special Acts to a few exceptional cases. The advance from the lowest to the highest rate is by fractions of a dollar, the average advance being sixty cents.

Another reform that has been suggested is to permit the employment of trained actuaries to determine the exact extent of the burden upon the public treasury. What this is no one now knows, and for a succession of years the Commissioner of Pensions

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has been obliged to guess at it, as nearly as he could, and to ask Congress later on to make good the deficiency occasioned by his insufficient estimate.

We know the general fact that the pension outlay thus far in our history has amounted to a round billion and a half, a total which need not alarm us when we remember that this only equals our present amount of expenditure for eighteen months, and that we have, since the close of the War of the Rebellion, paid nearly two billions upon the principal of the public debt, besides twenty-six hundred thousand in interest and premiums.

General Egbert L. Viele has suggested, as the result of his experience in Congress, that the Government should employ competent persons to receive the statements of those who think they are entitled to pensions, and to embody these statements in the proper forms of applications. "A bureau especially charged with this duty, under an officer of the Adjutant-General's department, would certainly act as a barrier against fraudulent claims, would save to the Government many times its cost, while saving to the soldiers all the expense now exacted by the claim agent."

Finally, and most important of all, Congress should provide for printing a list of pensioners, with a statement of the reason for granting a pension in each case. To this should be added a list of those applying for pensions whose cases are pending, including the claimants for increase of pensions. Such a list should be widely distributed, instead of being confined, as was the one printed some years ago, to a few copies passing at once into the hands of persons interested in suppressing the facts. Every army officer should receive copies, and every organization representing old soldiers, and it should be sent to each post-office to be posted there. The attempts made thus far to revise our pension rolls have not paid their cost. The two or three hundred special examiners employed last year succeeded in convicting only one hundred and twenty two fraudulent pensioners or fourteen-one-hundred-thousandths (.00014) of one per cent. of the whole number of pensioners. To prove that a pension has been wrongly bestowed requires the establishment of a negative proposition, and this in the face of the testimony of honest but possibly mistaken witnesses who are to be accused of no worse sin than the desire to help a neighbor or friend or possibly an old comrade to establish an exact relation between the disability he suffers to-day and the

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hardships he endured a generation ago. What man, dealing ever so honestly with himself, can tell to which of his early experiences are due the physical infirmities he suffers from in the decline of life? And as a gift blindeth the judgment, so does the prospect of support or of partial support at the public expense confuse the memory of past experiences.

While endeavoring to set forth fairly the exact condition of the pension problem, I must confess that I have no great sympathy with the present disposition to criticise our appropriations for pensions. We are reaping what we have sown, and in the end we may learn that the money expended in preventing war or in preparing ourselves to conduct it with efficiency is quite as wisely bestowed as that devoted to paying later on for our neglect, and we may find comfort for ourselves in the fact that our expenditures for pensions at the worst showing will not, after the arrears of pensions are settled, exceed the amount contributed annually to the public treasury by the tax upon liquors and cigars. We may be content with the knowledge that it is the vices of our people that are providing for the comfort of our old soldiers, not one of whom should fail to receive what is honestly his due in the way of public support, and let those who object to contributing to this refrain from smoking and drinking. Our liberality toward veterans is in the line of our increase of national expenditure in a ratio beyond that of an increase of population. In 1821 this increase was six millions in excess of this ratio, and in 1870 $164,400,000 in excess. Pensions are not peculiar to the American service; for example, every British soldier receives one after an enlistment of twenty-one years, and a temporary or permanent pension after twelve years if discharged as an invalid or rendered unfit for service.

We give pensions for a service of sixty days and even for one of fourteen days; our pensions are much more liberal and our pensioners much more numerous. That is all the difference. We overlook the distinction between civilians in uniform and soldiers, and put upon the same footing the "bounty-jumper" and the man whose loyal devotion to duty takes no thought of personal advantage.

There is in this country a military class, too little understood and too little esteemed by the general public. It furnishes a type as distinct as the religious, the artistic, the literary, the

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scientific, or any of the other types that contribute to a complete nationality. In this class have been found some of the noblest examples of American manhood. Their deeds are indelibly associated with the episodes in our history which have given to our somewhat commonplace pursuit of the nineteenth century ideals of material advancement, whatever character of heroism it has. An association of thirty years with these men has given me an unusual opportunity to form a judgment as to their opinions. I feel entirely confident that they will heartily respond to what is said here as to indiscriminate pension legislation. There is a certain delicacy in their position towards those who are accepted as representing the military class, and it is not their province to initiate any movement that might be interpreted as a jealous interference with the rights of others. But it may be considered as certain that they will be found heartily in sympathy with whatever tends to elevate the soldierly character in public esteem, or to save it from the reproaches brought upon it by those who, without sufficient warrant, assume to represent it in the demand for indiscriminate pensioning for war service.

WILLIAM CONANT CHURCH.

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ART OF MYSTERY IN FICTION.

BY GEORGE MANVILLE FENN.

THE original inventor of the legend of how a man sold himself to the Prince of Darkness, taking for his share of the bargain renewed youth and unbounded riches, certainly deserves to be awarded the palm for the most wondrous and mysterious plot that ever emanated from the human brain. He must have been a deep thinker, one well versed in the philosophy of goose quill, knowing that his story would thrill the reader, and that he had achieved the great point of seizing upon that reader's imagination, and holding it, so that he would follow the mystery of the fiction to the very end. It may have been the result of some haphazard lucky thought, but still he must have been a careful student of every-day life, and must have duly noted how largely curiosity or the desire to fathom the unknown is developed in the human brain. It is possible even to descend lower in the scale of creation and to find this quality in creatures which progress on four hands or four feet, and to note how frequently the hunter lures the unfortunate quarry to death by holding forth something novel to its gaze. But, setting aside the beast of the field, it is sufficient to recall how very soon in infant life a pair of little wondering eyes begin, in the nurse's parlance, "to take notice," and how, before long, the use of the curious eyes is supplemented by a tiny, outstretched, feeling hand, trying to touch that something before it which is unknown. The child grows, and with its growth the desire increases, and, to speak broadly, becomes an insatiable desire to know what is on the other side of the wall that he cannot climb. In his simplicity he is the Simon of nursery lore, who cut open his mother's bellows to see whence came the wind. A much-maligned youth, by the way; for his simplicity was only the natural thirst for knowledge of a mystery; and, after all, he was somewhat of a philosopher studying pneumatics, and possibly wiser than his judges. As the ordinary Simon of every-day life matures and becomes

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versed in his many studies, we find him still seeking after the meanings of the many mysteries of life, and dabbling in science as chemist, or as astronomer, puzzling out the why and wherefore of the worlds around; perhaps even turning to occultism as an earnest student, or as a victim of the charlatan; and, above all, sooner or later, trying to dive into the mysteries of the great unknown—the future.

It is this strong passion to know the unknown that is seized upon by the writer of a certain class of fiction, who realizing the vastness of his audience, and calculating his probabilities in prizes to be won in the shape of notoriety, publisher's smiles, and their consequences, throws over his natural desires to follow out the so-called higher paths of literature with the delineation and analysis of character, and in the first pages of his work seeks to start his reader off upon the hunt after a mystery. The flaire is prepared, the scent is there, and the hunt for the elucidation begins. If cleverely arranged the hunter grows warmer and more breathless chapter by chapter, and at this rate he would soon run the mystery down; but he is carried off on false leads, disappointed, sent back to the true, and goes on with repetitions of the trick of which he is delightfully ignorant, till the last chapter is near, the quarry—the mystery—almost in sight, and finally, after a breathless chase, the aim of writer and reader is achieved.

Without going back to the most ancient utilizers of the hidden in fiction, it is a far-enough cry from the *Mysteries of Udolpho,* to the *Mysteries of a Hansom Cab;* from secret passage, dark dungeon, and strange appearances, to murder most foul and unnatural. Between those two points how innumerable have been the devices adopted to catch the reader's attention!

A goodly list of literary devices might be catalogued from the thousands of stories poured forth from the press, and it is food for the student to watch the hold they take upon the ordinary—even upon the extraordinary—reader, who is easily attracted to the mystery chase if that mystery be good. It may be dressed with a curdling thrill like that of De Montepin, who starts his readers upon the trail of a horror in the cemetery of Père la Chaise, with the strange and gruesome idea suggestive of the natural, supernatural, and always of the ghastly—the discovery of a thin stream of blood issuing from beneath the stony door of one of the more

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pretentious tombs; or one of the ingenious complications full of the detective element contrived by Gaboriau or Boisgobey; or the myst tery of a higher class arranged with its masterly sexual attractions, of the personage prisoned in the gloomy mansion who startled governess *Jane Eyre* with her nightly shrieks. Again, who amongst us was not fascinated by the fortunes of the beautiful bigamist whose first husband so mysteriously disappeared, and who did not long to penetrate *Lady Audley's Secret*, even feeling ready to forgive its rather vapid ending for the sake of the enjoyment experienced while under the clever novelist's spell?

Then we have the well-used, never-failing mystery followed as intently in real life as in fiction, the unravelling of that poisoning case which, once begun, has a perfect magnetism for the reader, whose stimulated mind goads him or her on in the chase with piquant questions. For there is first the sufferer dying by inches from that unknown fell disease which baffles all the physicians' skill—that is, the fiction physicians—for they remain chapters long in utter ignorance of the mysterious ailment. Then the discovery: it is produced by poison. But what poison? The symptoms are new to science. No deadly drug in the pharmacopœia would produce these effects. How could it have been administered? By what means? The suggestions are many—so many little mysteries to make one big—and when it is settled that the victim is being slowly poisoned, comes the leading up to the questions of who could be the administrator, and for what reason is the unfortunate being gradually done to death. Here is plenty of choice for the writer to gratify his reader: love, hatred, revenge, rivalry, hard cash, or, strongest of all—very telling this—for psychical reasons, to see a victim die.

Mystery is a strong card in the novelist's hand. By few has it been played with a skill like that of Wilkie Collins, who, with little characterization or sentiment, without creating individuals of fiction whom we remember, or whose sayings we quote, could hold the attention of the novel-reading world with his *Woman in White*, or set them eagerly agog to find the whereabouts of the mysterious diamond taken from its Eastern sanctuary. For ingenuity of construction, blind leads, bafflings, and sustained interest *The Moonstone* stands high in the catalogue of the mysteries of fiction; and the reader was penetrating to a degree who fastened upon Mr. Godfrey Ablewhite the theft, the

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point being most graphically and tragically revealed in the scene in the East End where he lay a corpse.

It is not great, perhaps, this art of mystery in fiction, partaking as it does of the nature of a puzzle or conundrum; still it is ingenious though stagy, with its designing and fitting, and surely to be commended as an art worthy of a meed of praise. Especially now that we have reached in reading a period when we are going through a transition stage which to the thoughtful is most marked. The novels of a century or so back were manly but coarse, and many a clever work retains its place on the bookshelves on account of its being licensed in its licentiousness by the brand, or hall mark, "classic." Then, as refinement obtained, we went through a phase of the morbidly sentimental, followed up by the sentimental romantic, which gave place in turn to productions of sterling worth lasting up to and continued in the present day. In company with all these, of course, there were the importations from across the Channel—clever, unprincipled, immoral, often filthy to a degree. In these, for the most part, the art of mystery was wanting. There was no room for it. The text was in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred sexuality. These had their readers naturally enough, but the hot-blooded exotic novel was neither popular nor plentiful. Now we have changed all that. Another French fashion has been imported; it has obtained its hold upon a largely increasing *clientèle* of readers, and is dubbed the gospel of nature. By them the honest, straightforward is pooh-poohed; Scott is a bore, Dickens burlesque, Thackeray tiresome satire, George Eliot old-fashioned and dull. The French novel, in short, a score or so of years ago, was read and not named; now it is read, and not only named but is answerable for a new school of novelists who base themselves upon their French masters and imitate them as nearly as they dare; for there are reasons—patent reasons—not unconnected with circulation, which hinder the modern Gallicised writer from going as far as he probably would. We have held up to us as master-pieces of nature and realism, *Manon Lescaut*, *Madame Bovary*, and the sham philosophic but mighty efforts of a great brain, the works of Zola. One casts no slur upon the ability of the writers of these romances. They are Frenchmen, of France, and their ways are not ours. But the insidious work is going on and is having its

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effect. Naturally our writers are ruled by the demand. The success of one brings forth many imitators, and the result is that many of the books now published, notably those written by the so-called weaker sex, grow broader and stronger—certainly in more senses than one. The school of writers to whom we owe this advance, this imitative effort in letters, scorning the art of mystery in fiction, claim for their work that it is in its breadth and strength more masculine—they might add feminine, though the reader may wade through many a novel without finding a true woman—nothing but the animal feminine whom the Frank delights to portray. The influence is daily growing, and an example of its effects is plainly before us—an example almost ludicrous—for we find one of our principal newspapers giving its assurance (in answer to certain rumors) that the novel appearing in its columns has not been expurgated, but is exactly as it came from the novelist's pen.

One might expect that with the advance of this class of narrative with naturalism so strongly to the fore, the old school of sensationalism would be beaten out of the field, but though the new writer basing his fiction upon his French master may out-Herod Herod and cause a massacre among the innocents he contemns, the mystery-lover will never be convinced, but will seek after his favorite food with as great a zest as ever. There is nothing repellent here: the natural desire to penetrate the occult is evoked, and in this lies the power which has won for many a work utterly wanting in truth to nature, plausibility and literary style—a work in fact of the most crude and rugged type—a fabulous circulation. It would be invidious to name such books, to pose as a judge, and give what at best would be only one opinion, but the question must have been asked by many a reader how it was that such farragoes of impossibilities—such tragi-burlesque played by abortive imitations of human life—could have enthralled their hundreds of thousands, and kept their attention from the beginning to the end. The answer is simple. It is the mystery of the story and the curiosity excited. These have a peculiar charm for most readers—most, for a tale of this kind with an ingenious, well-constructed plot partakes somewhat of the nature of the fabled Maelstrom. Even the lover of the vapid style of society novel, or of those dealing with afternoon calls and tea, liberally amalgamated with upholstery and the latest fashions; the

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lady worshipper of the athletic giants who crush the gentle violets of society and break hearts because it is their nature to, and consequently go on macadamizing their life path with these brittle objects so liberally offered to them—in novels; the patron of the libraries who is content with nothing less than character-studies, analysis of life, struggles against temptation, sexual or religious infidelity, stories of pure-minded church dignitaries fighting against doubt, or Barham's worst devil of all—the "laughing woman with two bright eyes," and who go through three volumes representing in Book I. the flitting fly, in Book II. the contact with the web and the vain struggles, and in Book III. the rescue and cleansing of the tangled wings by faith, fighting or death; all these readers fall at times to the ordinary mystery in fiction. Their nature is too strong for them. The cover of the popular-sensation story is lifted with possibly a smile of contempt for the people who can "devour such stuff," and of course just to skim a few pages to see what it may be like. Or it may be by accident, for want of something better to hand. Then a few lines are read, and could the ingenious writer be looking on, and always supposing that in cleverness of construction and freshness of idea the story is one of the best of its class, he too could have his smile for the great-browed deep thinker and student of the higher questions and theories of the nineteenth century. For the reader has placed one foot in the literary whirlpool, the other follows, and in the vast majority of cases complete immersion ensues; he starts on his career round and round, lost to everything but the insidious curiosity-exciting plot of the book, till the brain hunger is excited, and with the desire thoroughly piqued, he reads on to the very end. Then the book is thrown down—possibly with a contemptuous, "What trash!"

One joins issue here. Is it such trash when it has been so constructed and so written that it has kept the reader's brain spellbound, held the attention not only for the time occupied in reading three ordinary library volumes, but often in a tantalized state from month to month—six, or even twelve—when the work has appeared in periodical or magazine? These effects are produced by a combination of nature and art; nature worked upon by art most artfully; but it is given to few—this power of piquing a reader's brain. Once touched, though, the novelist has a

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wonderful ally in his victim, who colors up the pictures, and represents them to his mind's eye to suit his own taste, and often renders that which is dull bright in the extreme—to himself.

One might exemplify how strongly this is the case in many of the stories of adventure that have been written for boys, which, so to speak, have been merely skeletons—hard, dry bones, but well set up, strong, and perfectly articulated. Every joint has been carefully placed, and the form is without a flaw. Then comes the young reader to the mysterious bones, eager and full of curiosity. His vivid young imagination begins to work, and in a very short time that skeleton is clothed by him—not by the author—with elastic tendon, vigorous muscle, and a color of which the writer has hardly dreamed. The skeleton is alive and full of action, while the scene in which it begins to move and have its being impresses itself so upon the soft wax of the youthful imagination that it lasts there unabraded by a life of toil and care. And, though in a less degree, the adult reader, albeit his or her brain is a little thicker in its *pia* or *dura mater*, and more difficult to impress, also helps the author in his work. One who has studied these questions from many points of view, and, above all, noted how a story will "catch on," and almost electrically seize the imagination of the reading world, will constantly see that in the majority of cases the most popular fiction of the day is that in which mystery plays a prominent part—a mystery which is well concealed. It is no secret. There as aforesaid is the natural desire for the weird and wonderful—that hunger for the knowledge of the unknown which began with the forbidden apple; and the practiser of the art in question merely grows for those who hunger a fruit that is goodly to the eye, agreeable to the taste, and one that if he—or she—be worthy of the honored name of author, should only contain in its seeds a sufficiency of hydrocyanic poison to make it piquant in its savor. It is no forbidden fruit that he should offer, only an apple that is hard to pick, now within the grasp, now hidden amongst the leaves of the bright garden in which the reader is lured to stray, and rest and refresh, away from life s carking care —a fruit whose first bite excites fresh desire, whose taste brings forth an intense longing for more, and of which the choicest and most enticing morsel is cleverly held back to the very end.

GEORGE MANVILLE FENN.

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THE INTERIOR OF THE EARTH.

BY GEORGE F. BECKER, OF THE UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

IT IS a matter for surprise that the alarmists who from time to time predict the impending destruction of the world pay so little attention to the opportunities which geology offers them. By making two or three assumptions, each largely accepted, such a prophet could work out a scene of horror well calculated to make the stoutest heart grow faint.

A very large part of the educated public believes that the earth is a molten globe superficially enveloped by a chilled crust, and a magazine article in support of such a theory has recently attracted much attention. Very many of the natural philosophers consider it most probable that the rocks at and near the surface of the globe would expand in melting. If the earth were thus constituted a time would come when the solid crust would crack from its own weight, or from some moderate internal disturbance; and then block after block of the crust, region after region of the world we know and love so well, would plunge slowly and heavily to meet the rising, molten flood, while whirlwinds of scalding steam would shroud perishing humanity.

It would require a Dante to do justice to the tragic side of this theme. A hard-hearted physicist would simply remark that a crust of such dimensions resting on a fluid of inferior density is in unstable equilibrium; the rest being an evident consequence. Statements such as this are commonly considered as extremely uninteresting; but the Dantesque view of the subject has been indicated sufficiently to show that the earth's interior is within the sphere of human interest. Aside from ignoble fears, there seems scarcely any topic better suited to excite a legitimate intel-

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lectual interest among men than this most fundamental question concerning that little planet, our world. Is it a molten globe with a pellicle of cool dry land, or is it really *terra firma*, a solid earth ?

It would be interesting to trace the rise and progress of the two existing and opposed opinions on this question, but economy of space forbids more than the barest outline of such a sketch. The Greeks and Romans recognized the existence of melted lavas beneath the surface, though not supposing the whole interior of the earth fluid. Descartes, in 1644, seems to have been the first to give expression to the opinion, still so widely entertained, that the earth is a fiery globe, superficially encrusted. Newton and Laplace on the other hand assumed that the earth was solid ; and, indeed, incapable of deformation by the attraction of the moon or sun.

Laplace and his successors were not led by their own investigations to abandon the idea of a solid earth as inconsistent with known phenomena, for their study of the tides on an ideally rigid globe have been in great measure verified by observation. Indeed, when the irregularities of the sea bottom and of the sea shores are taken into consideration, it seems strange that human ingenuity could have advanced so far towards a satisfactory accounting for the facts. Evidently, then, these results were sufficient justification for the assumption that the earth behaved like a mass approaching ideal rigidity, or presenting great resistance to deformation. On the other hand geologists in Laplace's day were substantially unanimous in regarding the earth from Descartes' point of view as an incrusted globe, the interior of which was liquid. There are indeed arguments for this opinion which are not lightly to be disposed of, and which could not have been fully answered early in the century. It will be well to state these reasons first and then to examine them.

One of them rests upon the observed fact that, in mines and other artificial excavations, the temperature of the rocks increases as one descends from the surface, the increase being about one degree Fahrenheit for every sixty-four feet, or more than eighty-two degrees per mile. Hence an enormous temperature must exist at depths of twenty or thirty miles, one which would probably suffice to melt most rocks existing at the surface ; at least under those conditions with which we are familiar. A condition

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with which we are not at all familiar is the immense pressure existing at such depths. Again, the eruption of lavas, which probably first led to the idea of internal heat, seems an argument for the existence of reservoirs of melted rock, if not for general subterranean fluidity. Strongest of all in the minds of many geologists is the argument derived from the crumpling and rupture of rocks. It is absolutely certain that areas of sediment, which were laid down in seas or lakes as substantially horizontal layers of mud or sand, have not only hardened to firm rock but have been bent, twisted and folded to an extraordinary extent. They are sometimes as minutely and as sharply flexed as a crumpled pocket handkerchief. If the superficial portion of the earth is a crust floating on a cooling shrinking fluid, it might perhaps pucker like the skin of a drying orange; and indeed mountain ranges are no larger in proportion to the earth than the tiny folds of a shrivelled orange skin are in proportion to the orange.

None of these argumeuts is wholly conclusive. There are certain substances, of which ice and cast-iron are the most important, which contract in melting; and pressure (within certain limits) facilitates their fusion because it coöporates with heat to reduce the volume of the mass. This class is a limited one. All other substances expand in fusing, and pressure, by opposing this expansion, impedes their fusion. Now it has long been known from experiments that rocks may be fused to glassy slags, and that these slags when cold are much less dense than the rocks from which they are derived. Glasses and glassy slags themselves also expand in melting, or shrink in solidifying. It is for this reason that moulded glass utensils have rounded edges and cannot be made closely to imitate cut-glass. Thus cold rocks are denser than the melted glasses into which heat converts them.*

More satisfactory in some respects than any experiments are observations which I have made in the Yosemite Valley and other deep cañons of the Sierra Nevada. In that region there are

* Very numerous experiments have been made on the change in density in rocks and minerals due to fusion and, indeed, by investigators of great distinction. Among them are C. Sainte-Claire Deville, Thoulet, Rammelsberg, Abich and Magnus. Many of the data are collected by Professor Justus Roth in his Allgemeine Geologie, vol. 2, 1883, page 51. They all show a diminution of density by fusion, for the most part of very large amount. Thus granite and allied rocks increase in bulk by about ten per cent. when fused.

Certain anomalous results obtained by Mr. Joseph Whitley, of Leeds, for granite and whinstone cannot outweigh scores of experiments by the ablest investigators.

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many narrow dikes of a light colored granite which must have cooled under a "head" of several thousand feet of melted rock. Under such pressure the liquid rock must have filled the cracks it occupied very completely. In hundreds of cases, however, flat, lenticular openings have formed along the centres of these dikes while the rock was solidifying and crystallizing. This is a conconclusive proof that the material shrank, or that the volume of the rock diminished, in passing from the fluid to the solid state.

It is substantially certain from such facts that pressure would impede the fusion of rocks by counteracting the expansive tendency which accompanies fusion. Consequently a given rock at a depth of several miles below the surface would melt only at a higher temperature than would suffice to fuse it at the surface.

More precise information as to the relations between melting point and pressure was highly desirable and indeed constituted one of the great desiderata of physical geology. This has lately been obtained by Dr. Carl Barus, at the instigation of Mr. Clarence King, for a very typical rock.* This is the material of the Palisades on the Hudson; it covers large areas in northern New Jersey, and is in fact very abundant throughout the world. It is called diabase and sometimes basalt. Dr. Barus showed that this rock expands in melting, that the temperature at which it melts increases with the pressure, and that the increase in this temperature is simply proportional to the increase in pressure. He found also that various other substances, such as wax and paraffine, behave in substantially the same way as diabase so far as the relation of melting point to pressure is concerned; and there is practically no doubt that granitic rocks would show the same relation, since it is known that they yield a glass specifically lighter than the unfused rock, just as diabase does.

Now unless the temperature increases in passing from the surface of the earth towards its centre so fast as to overtake the melting point of the rock (which rises with pressure) no portion of the earth can be fluid. Just how fast the temperature rises at considerable distances cannot, however, be determined directly; so that the fine work mentioned in the last paragraph, taken by itself, only shows that the distribution of temperature in the earth *may* be such as to produce no general fusion of the rocks. Thus it does not follow that because the temperature rises with

* *Am. Jour. Sci.*, vol. 43, 1892, p. 56, and vol. 45, 1893, p. 1.

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increasing depth from the surface, the interior *must* be fluid, and one of the supposed grounds for concluding that the inner earth is a molten mass is untenable.

As for the evidence of volcanoes, they do not even tend to show a general fluidity of the interior, any more than springs of water in the Alps prove that the interior of that range is a subterranean lake. Volcanoes do not even show that there are permanent reservoirs of melted matter beneath the surface. If the rocks at a few miles below the surface are kept from melting only by the pressure, a relief of pressure would cause them to melt. Similarly when a boiler bursts, the water being above the ordinary boiling point flashes instantly into steam. Consequently volcanic eruptions may possibly be due to relief of pressure by cracks from the surface, and no permanent reservoirs of melted lava are then requisite. Or, again, the melting may be induced in the highly heated solid rock by a small accession of heat due to local mechanical action, such as "faulting." A third possibility is of a chemical nature. All melted lavas contain water, and are to some extent in a condition of so-called aquo-igneous fusion. This fusion in the presence of water (under a pressure which prevents the escape of steam) takes place at a lower temperature than dry fusion and, within certain limits, the more water the mass contains the more easily it will melt. Hence water, percolating through cracks or even pores of the rock to great depths, may sometimes so reduce the point of fusion of the material in this way that it will pass into the liquid state without either relief from pressure or accession of temperature. This hypothesis would contribute to an explanation of the eruptions of the Hawaiian volcanos where there is nothing to indicate the presence of deep cracks or active faulting. On the whole, then, volcanoes do not imply the presence even of permanent reservoirs of fluid lava, much less the fluidity of the whole interior of the earth.

As for the deformation and wrinkling of the rocks near the earth's surface, it is a subject upon which much light has been thrown since the middle of the century. When one bends a bit of lead, copper, or tallow the particles of the mass slide past one another, very much as the leaves of a book do when it is opened or shut, and remain nearly in the position into which they are forced. This relative inelastic movement among the particles is called the "flow of solids" by Tresca, and such flow takes place

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whenever a mass stays bent or otherwise deformed after the force is relieved. In ordinary experience only soft solids, such as those mentioned, flow sensibly. But under slowly applied forces, gradually increasing in intensity, even glass and hard steel flow, as experiment proves.

Rock exposures often show in an unmistakable manner the phenomena of solid flow. In particular, many conglomerates, or pudding stones, are found to have been moulded by pressure, something as if they had been reduced to a pasty condition; yet not really thus, for the details of structure prove that the pebbles have obeyed the law of solid flow, not those of liquid flow. The distinction is most marked, but it cannot be explained here for lack of space.*

If, then, the rocks yield, in large measure at least, by solid flow (pushed to an extent which the feeble resources of experiment cannot reproduce), it is quite unnecessary to assume that the earth as a whole has received its superficial plications by a different process. If the external shell of the earth, say ten or twenty miles in thickness, is crumpled by processes identical with those which twist and bend the steel beams of a collapsing railway bridge or of a falling building, a thicker shell, perhaps the outer one or two hundred miles of the globe, would yield in the same way, only more completely because of its greater weight. In other words, the contortion of the superficial rocks does not necessarily imply any fluid interior or substratum.

Thus none of the reasoning from which a fluid interior has been inferred is convincing; and indeed it may be concluded that simple examination of the earth's surface, however careful, is essentially inadequate to solve the question at issue.

"Papa," one may fancy Miss Edgeworth's Frank inquiring, "is this a solid rubber ball or only a hollow one filled with some liquid?" That idealized parent would not have replied: "Let me get out my microscope and carefully examine the surface of your toy." No, indeed! He would have answered: "Pinch it, my son, and judge for yourself."

Though the earth is too large for the immediate application of this method, the sun and the moon do really drag the earth out of shape with a tremendous energy adequate to the occasion. Do they deform the globe as if it were solid, or as if it were filled

* Bulletin Geological Soc. of Amer., vol. 4, 1893, p. 46.

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with fluid? This is the best test of the question which can possibly be suggested. It was not an easy matter to substitute computation for the muscular sense which would have led Frank to a correct conclusion. The earth retains pretty nearly a constant shape in part by the attraction of gravity. If it is a solid mass its elasticity also opposes the deforming action of the sun and moon. Laplace showed how the earth would behave if it resisted deformation only by gravity. Lamé showed how a supposed solid sphere would resist deformation if only its elasticity came into play. Lord Kelvin (then Sir William Thomson) combined these results and compared them with observations on the actual deformation.* The problem as thus solved is one of great mathematical complexity, but I have shown that Lamé's results can be dispensed with for the purposes of this inquiry, and that the solution can be reached without loss of stringency by a very simple method.† The conclusion, however reached, is this:

If the earth were fluid and had a very thin crust the earth as a whole would be drawn towards the moon and sun substantially as the water of the ocean is attracted; so that there would be a "bodily" tide in the earth as a whole twice a day; and this tide would be about as great as the oceanic tides are. Thus the coasts and the ocean would rise and fall together. What we recognize as a tide is simply the difference between the rise of the sea and the rise of the land. If the crust were thin this difference would be insensible or, in other words, we should not perceive the tides at the seashore any more than we perceive them from the deck of a vessel at sea. Shore and sea would rise and fall together.

Thus the mere fact that there are tides shows that the earth offers effective resistance to deformation. The next question is how great is this resistance. Lord Kelvin, and afterwards Professor G. H. Darwin, have computed how the resistance displayed by the earth to tidal deformation compares with that which a globe as elastic as solid, continuous glass would present. They find that a glass globe would certainly yield more freely than the earth. They have also compared it with a globe of steel, and they conclude that the earth resists the attraction of the sun and moon nearly or quite as much as a solid continuous globe of steel would do.

Now it is hard to imagine that the earth is as strong as steel,

* See Thomson and Tait, Natural Philosophy, section 834.
†*Am. Jour. Sci.*, vol. 39, 1890, p. 336.

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still harder to fancy that it is stronger. But if the world consists of even a very thick shell (say five hundred miles in thickness) inclosing a fluid mass, this shell must be far stronger than steel or any other substance known to men. Hence, finally, it is substantially certain that the earth is solid to (or close to) the centre.*

Some geologists have demurred to this conclusion, for it is hard to give up opinions which have been considered certain and fundamental; but only one serious attempt has been made to account for the acknowledged fact of the enormous effective resistance of the earth to the tide-producing forces consistently with a fluid interior. This attempt is due to Reverend Osmond Fisher,† and his speculation has recently been restated by the famous zoölogist, Mr. Alfred Wallace, in the *Fortnightly Review* for November. One may consider the attraction of the moon as tending to produce two distinct changes in the earth; one a change of shape, the other a change of bulk or volume. Now Mr. Fisher supposed (quite erroneously) that Lord Kelvin had omitted to consider the earth as capable of changes of volume, and he maintained that the effect of this capacity would be to counteract the tendency to change of shape. This is simply a mistake. It can be and it has been shown, on unquestionable mechanical principles, that volume change would diminish the total effective resistance of the earth to tidal force and reduce the apparent height of the tides.††

A solid rubber ball, though very elastic, is nearly incapable of change of volume; but there is a kind of spongy rubber, used for erasing drawings, which is full of small vesicles or "air holes," and a ball of this material can easily be reduced in bulk. Now Mr. Fisher's proposition is equivalent to this: If one were to make a ball of spongy rubber containing the right proportion of vesicles, the ball would be as rigid as if it were made of steel. So stated Mr. Fisher's hypothesis is incredible, nor has it been accepted by competent judges.

Lord Kelvin's argument has not been weakened by any objection yet advanced against it, while the theory has received support from Professor Darwin's discussion of tides, and still

* W. Hopkins' argument for solidity from precession has been shown to be untenable. An account of it is omitted to save space.
† Physics of the Earth's Crust, second edition, 1889.
†† *Amer. Jour. Sci.*, vol. 39, 1890, p. 336.

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more strikingly from results recently announced by Professor Simon Newcomb.

It is known to all readers of newspapers that, in recent years, some small varying changes in latitude have been detected at astronomical observations, and Mr. S. C. Chandler has discovered that these changes are periodic, so that the telescopes come back to the same latitude after a certain period. From a great number of observations in the two Americas, England and continental Europe, Newcomb finds this period four hundred and thirty days. The cause is probably unusual accumulations of ice and snow near, but not at, one or other of the poles. A temporary additional load of snow confined, for example, to Greenland would very slightly change the axis about which the earth would rotate. Now if the earth were ideally rigid (as Laplace considered it in his theory of tides) this new axis, as has long been known, would shift its position along a conical surface described about the old axis, and this progressive change of the axis of rotation would cause a change of latitude such as that detected, but with a period of only three hundred and six days. Newcomb finds that if the earth is not ideally rigid the length of this period must be increased, so that if the earth were deprived of all rigidity, or were fluid throughout, the length of the period would be infinite. Making certain probable assumptions as to the behavior of the ocean, and supposing that the earth as a whole resists deformation as much as steel, he finds that the length of the period would increase to four hundred and forty-one days, or only eleven days more than the observed period. Thus if the assumptions as to the behavior of the ocean are exact, the effective resistance of the earth is a little greater than that of steel, and in any case the earth presents just about that degree of resistance.*

The investigation of Messrs. King and Barus mentioned above revitalizes an argument for the solidity of the earth, put forward long ago by Lord Kelvin, and referred to at the beginning of this paper. Assuming that rocks would expand in melting, he pointed out that the crusts formed on the surface would break up and sink in the molten mass. Subsequently, because of some very inadequate experiments which were interpreted as indicating that rocks contract in melting, he withdrew this ar-

* Newcomb's investigations are set forth in two distinct papers, *Monthly Notices Royal Astronomical Society*, vol. lii., 1892, p. 336, and *Astronomische Nachrichten*, vol. cxxx., 1892, p. 1.

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gument. The careful work of the American investigators shows that Lord Kelvin's original assumption and conclusion were entirely correct.*

In conclusion, then, all the arguments which have not been shown to be inconclusive or false indicate that the earth presents a resistance to deformation about as great as if it were a solid steel ball, and that it actually is solid to, or nearly to, the centre. The permanent deformations to which it has been subjected near the surface are enormous, and their amount is seldom appreciated by astronomers or physicists; but these deformations have been produced for the most part by the "flow of solids," and there is no known incompatibility between such distortions and the theory of a solid earth. The public may accept the theory of *Terra Firma* in peace, and those geologists who attempt to combat it can scarcely fail to lose their labor.

GEORGE F. BECKER.

* The conclusions in this paragraph are entirely inconsistent with the hypothesis that the earth's interior resembles very stiff sealing wax or asphalt substances which are known as "ultra-viscous fluids." This idea must also be rejected on other grounds, an explanation of which is not needful here.

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TWO ENGLISHWOMEN ON AMERICA.

I.—BY LADY GREY-EGERTON.

IT WAS on a very hot day at the end of last July that we landed at Vancouver, but the sunshine and heat were simply delightful to us, as we had come across the Pacific from Yokohama, and had suffered from fog the whole way. We came into the fog the day after leaving and never quite shook it off till we were in sight of America. Sometimes it lifted just a little, giving us hopes of clear weather, but it shut down again and the ship panted and throbbed on with everything cold, damp and clammy to the touch and with wet and slippery decks.

This being our first visit to America we were eagerly on the lookout for all differences between it and the old country, but we were delighted to find that we felt as if we were again in England and seemed very much at home. For ten months we had been travelling in strange countries—some of them very strange indeed—and now again we heard our own language familiarly spoken and saw faces most unmistakably English all around us; it seemed very pleasant and homelike. But at our hotel we sadly missed the friendly little Japanese waiters and waitresses to whom we had been so long accustomed, who were but indifferently replaced by the magnificent and supercilious gentlemen who condescended at their leisure to bring us the menu. After hearing our selections therefrom they would stroll off to some unknown region, leaving us to a dreary and impatient wait of half an hour, more or less, and return at last balancing a tray loaded with small dishes which they crowded pell mell on the table before us. It was a very unsatisfactory way of being served and I never could reconcile myself to it, or to that long waiting period. In vain we tipped the waiters and tried in

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various ways to curry favor with them; nothing was ever of any avail, and all through America we suffered from that long pause and from the untidily arranged mass of unappetizing dishes.

We remained only three or four days at Vancouver, but I cannot say we found it as uninteresting as had been prophesied. Only six years ago the whole town was destroyed by fire, yet a flourishing and rapidly-increasing city has already sprung up, laid out in wide streets with wooden sidewalks and planks serving as street pavements, over which the light carriages drawn by really very nice-looking horses rattle and bump in truly backwoods' fashion. The town is lighted by electricity and has electric street cars; is full of handsome banks, offices and warehouses, and of large shops and stores of all kinds. Truly in America the world moves fast! Here and there are vacant places in the streets showing where the land has not yet been bought up for building purposes, but the arrival of yet more commerce and enterprise is awaited and confidently looked for to fill up these gaps. Whole streets there are of pretty detached wooden dwelling-houses, with creepers growing over them, each standing in its lawn of well-kept grass. In the distance glimpses are caught of tall pine trees rising up behind the houses like the masts of many ships, which tell of the yet uncleared forest on the outskirts of the town. We drove in the public park, which is at present but a large tract of forest land with well-made drives winding about among trees often gigantic; we picnicked at the saw-mill on the opposite shore of the inlet; we boated on the sea and saw some of the most magnificent sunsets imaginable, with such glorious effects of light and color that they transformed the modern prosaic town of Vancouver into the semblance of a glorified enchanted city; last, but not least, we suffered from the mosquitoes, which at sunset came out from the forest trees in their myriads and attacked us with a persistence and a concentrated essence of venom extremely irritating both to temper and skin.

On landing at Vancouver our first impression had been, how like it was to England, but during these few days we had learned, on the contrary, how unlike it is. Everywhere was evidence that things were merely temporary, that they had been put up in the rough to be replaced presently by something better. Then the houses were of wood, the roadways of wood, the paths of

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wood; at the saw-mills huge fires were consuming the refuse wood—wood was a glut in the market, for forest land was everywhere. The vast tracts of uncultivated country extending for untold miles seemed to impress the imagination and to make us more than half colonists ourselves, as we were led to picture both their difficulties and their joys. And the men and women round us seemed different too; they were still unmistakably Anglo-Saxon, but they looked eager, bright, hopeful. Whatever might be their class, in their faces it was written that they saw before them—possibilities; which they meant to reach, or at any rate to try to reach; and nowhere was that stolid look of hopeless endurance, which I have, alas! so often seen elsewhere.

Patient endurance has its merit, but it is apt to stunt and stupefy the mind. Here there was none of it; patience would be useless, and speculation was in the air; every creature invested what he or she could; the assistants in the shops, the waiters at the hotel, the drivers of the flys—all had their pet fancies, and earned their money and laid it out as they hoped to the best advantage; and I, too, was seized with the universal craze and had to try my little venture. A few days ago I came across the parchment which represents that little venture, but the spirit of speculation had deserted me and I found myself wondering if it would ever be worth more than the paper on which it is written.

We found that five days and nights of railway travelling lay before us, to be followed by three on a steamer through Lakes Superior and Huron, and then finally there would still be a few hours by train before we reached Niagara, where we were to leave Canada and to enter the States. It seemed an endless journey, and my heart began to sink. But the Canadian Pacific Railway officials took us in hand, and all at once became *couleur de rose*. They treated the whole thing as a matter of course; they advised us where to stop and what to see; told us at what place to ask for further advice and from whom to ask it; thus passing us on from one stopping place and from one official to another, so that the whole of that long and formidable journey went on swimmingly and pleasantly, without hitch or drawback. We found that the first and most important point was always to make sure of the drawing-room car, which has a small compartment containing two sleeping berths at the end, in which the occupants are perfectly comfort-

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able and private, an impossibility elsewhere; and I could only wonder at the discomfort to which the ladies of America resign themselves in the ordinary sleeping cars. Our little drawing-room was charming; fitted up in serge green plush and satinwood, with the softest of sofas, it almost approached the dignity of a boudoir, which it certainly was in size; at night two berths let down—broad and comfortable ones, well provided with fine sheets and pillow slips. Four days and nights in a railway train sounds interminable, and cannot help at times being wearisome; but, even so, there was a certain amount of variety. For the first half of the journey there was an observation car on the train—a long, bare carriage with merely a bench down the centre and with the sides all windows, to which we could make periodical expeditions and from which we could see the scenery to great advantage. Our meals were served in restaurant cars, which were taken up and dropped again at fixed stations, where we used to eat under difficulties, the train being much given to sudden bumps and shakings most embarrassing in the consumption of soup; but sometimes—which was far more pleasant—the train reached a restaurant building, standing a little back from the line, with garden and lawn in front of it, and then the whole trainful alighted, to find a large, airy dining-room ready set out with numerous little tables, many neatly-dressed waitresses in attendance and a menu which was really very well selected, or appeared to be so to hungry travellers who had been shut up in a train for many hours. There was always time for a stroll in the garden afterwards before we all collected round the carriages again ready for the start. When the prairie country was reached there were still the occasional stoppages, when everyone gladly stepped out of the train and sought such diversion as might be found in watching the grey squirrels hopping about in the long grass, and in picking the wild flowers that grow in profusion by the side of the line, common enough evidently in Canada, but new and strange to us Britishers.

Railway stations in America are not designed on the magnificent scale that prevails in England and Europe generally; the strictly necessary seems all that is attended to, and the grand or handsome quite left out of account. Insignificant buildings and a narrow platform, quickly blocked up by luggage, is what the stations in America generally con-

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sist of. Often in the States the passengers are set down and taken up anywhere in the station, even where there is no platform, when they have to straggle across the lines to where their next train is waiting for them, or to find their way across the rails to the station buildings. To those used to European ways of travelling this seems a crude and dangerous way of proceeding, but presumably habit teaches caution, or there must be many accidents. A friend told me that one day at a railway station soon after landing at New York he said to a man lounging near, whom he took for a porter, "Just shoulder this portmanteau, my man." The man looked at the portmanteau and then at him. "Shoulder it yourself," he replied, as he turned on his heel. In America I am certain it is best to mind your own business.

The scenery through which we passed for six hundred miles after leaving Vancouver till we reached the prairie country on the other side of the Rocky Mountains was simply marvellous. I have been in many countries all over the world and have seen much beautiful scenery, but for extent and impressiveness, for awfulness and majesty, never anything to come near it. At first our way lay along the valley of the great Fraser River, where it rolls swiftly but smoothly on its way to the ocean; and there were mountains on each side of us, but broad and cultivated valleys lay between them; by degrees the valley and the river narrowed, the mountains drew nearer, and the river became rolling and more rapid. On its banks we passed Indian camps, where salmon were hanging on lines to dry, the tiny tents and the smoke of the camp fires giving to the scene a touch of human interest. Every now and then we saw Indians spearing the fish or scooping them out of the river; occasionally on patches of sand or gravel there were Chinamen washing the sand for gold. We passed Yale, a town where Indian tents, European houses, churches and a Chinese joss house, are mixed up in strange confusion, and then the train turned a corner and suddenly plunged into the far-famed Fraser Cañon. For twenty-three miles the river rushes and foams at the bottom of the deep and narrow gorges of the Cascade range of mountains, and the railway follows the course of the river as it winds about among them. High above the river, along the sides of its precipitous cliffs, is cut the track of the railway, sometimes crossing the chasm by a slender bridge; sometimes burrowing by a tunnel through a spur of the cliff. Always there are the precipices

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above and the abyss below, with the foaming torrent dashing itself along at the bottom. When we emerged from the Fraser Cañon the evening was closing in. During this first night in the train we passed many of the places with strange, uncouth names that were given in the timetable, and which we were fated, therefore, not to see, but we were up in the morning in time for Craigellachie, where the last nail was driven home to complete the line, and where the rails from the east met those from the west.

Before leaving Vancouver we had secured a permit to ride on the cowcatcher. There had been some difficulty in getting it, as the officials of the Canadian Pacific had rather discouraged the idea, and had tried hard to persuade us that all purposes would be answered by our riding with the engine driver; but then they were obliged to allow that the scenery could be seen very much better from the front of the engine—that, given a strong head, the ride on a cowcatcher was delightful, and that several ladies had done it already. What other ladies had done we felt sure we could do too, and so eventually we received our permit. It desired the engine-driver to let us ride in front of the engine between certain named stations, and it stated that we did so at our own risk and peril and took all danger to life or limb on ourselves. It was rather an alarmingly-worded missive, but we saw that the order was numbered far on into the second hundred, so that we were far from being the first people who had treated themselves to these risks and danger, and we took comfort accordingly.

We found the cowcatcher to be an arrangement of iron bars fastened to the lower part of the front of the engine, and so making a kind of blunt plough in front of it; and it was on the engine with our feet dangling over this cowcatcher that we found we were to sit, one on each side; and there we rode from the foot of the Selkirk Mountains till we reached Glacier House close to the top of the pass. A wonderful two hours' ride that was; the air whizzing past us, the hugh engine panting and grunting at our backs; such a roar in our ears that we couldn't hear each other speak, and mingled feelings of danger and security that were exciting and thrilling indeed. Winding in and out among the mountains the long snake-like train went, swiftly and steadily, almost doubling back sometimes round some sharp curve, shooting across wonderful black wooden trestle bridges, built

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just wide enough to take the wheels of the carriages,—skeleton bridges through which the eye could penetrate in every direction and clearly discern the torrent, the Illicilliwaet dashing itself about among the rocks below.

As we got higher up the pass, the train began to dash in and out of the snow sheds, showing where in winter the dreaded snow-slips occur; and backward and forward across the chasms, and winding about among the snowcapped mountains went the track. Presently came a tunnel, and a tunnel when riding on a cowcatcher is a thing to be remembered! I saw the narrow track in front of me vanish in a little black hole in the mountain side, and the next moment we were in that black hole and plunged into utter darkness. On and on the train rushed with a deafening noise through the cimmerian blackness. I had a vague feeling that I must hold fast for my life, my only idea the confident one that I should see the light presently; the cold, heavy, damp air whizzed past me; my ears were filled with the roar of the train, my eyes ached with staring ahead for the point of light which seemed never coming. Then a tiny flash like a star appeared and in another moment we were out of the black darkness and into the sunshine, with the green trees dancing in the light and the blue sky above us! Was there ever sky so blue before, or sun that shone so brightly on green pine trees? Or would ever air again seem so fresh and warm and pure? We looked at each other across the huge engine, and though we couldn't hear ourselves speak we waved our hands and laughed with joy at being once more out in the open.

Then there were the declines, when we shot down at a pace that seemed likely to take our breath away, and all this time we were passing through the wildest and most glorious scenery, pine-clad and snow-capped mountains piled one on the other in the maddest confusion, with glaciers here and there creeping down their sides. As the track twisted and turned among the mountains we even caught glimpses of others yet more distant, or came upon new precipices and other glaciers, till at last we arrived at the foot of the Great Glacier of the Selkirks, where is Glacier House station and the little hotel at which we had arranged to spend the afternoon and night. At the back of the hotel and station rises out of the glacier ice the barren, naked peak of Sir Donald, and

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in every direction are other mountain tops, some too precipitous to give a resting-place to the snow, others wrapped calm and serene in their winter mantles. Looking back we could see the track along which we had come, the turns and twists by which we had climbed the pass, and the famous "loops" which had brought us to the top of it, while far away at the foot of the gorge shone the Illicilliwaet, to the eye at that distance a mere silver thread, but wonderful in spelling and pronunciation.

We visited the glacier, feeling ourselves authorities on glaciers generally, since a visit we had lately paid to Alaska, and we explored the snowsheds on the line—strong wooden sheds built here and there over the track on the mountain sides, so that when in winter a snowslip would otherwise bury the track and any train with it, it falls instead on these stout sheds and slips harmlessly away on its journey further down the mountain. The first year that the line was open no one knew where these snowslips were likely to occur, or understood how best to provide against them, with the result that one train was snowed up for six weeks Now, however, owing to this system of snowsheds, added to constant supervision, the line is kept open and the trains run securely all through the winter. A weird and desolate journey indeed it must be at that time of year !

HENRIETTA GREY-EGERTON.

II.—BY LADY SYKES.

The first visit I made to America took place in August, 1879. We landed on one of the hottest days I ever experienced, even in the tropics, and waited for hours in the burning sun on a very uncomfortable and dirty quay, while every individual article in our abundant baggage was taken out of its case, examined, and disputed over. At this distance of time I am afraid to say how much we paid for duty, but it was relatively an extremely large sum. We drove through miles of ill-paved, badly-kept streets, to the locality where our hotel was situated. Twenty-fourth Street and the surrounding streets were then the centre of fashion in the way of residence. Our hotel, which was considered the very best in New York, was one of the few conducted on European principles; the rooms were small and meanly furnished, the beds hard and uncomfortable, and we had great difficulty in getting sufficient

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linen. The restaurant, which was really excellent in comparison with most others then existing in New York, was fair, but I particularly remember how bad and tough all the meat was, and how inferior everything appeared when compared with that which we had left behind us.

The day after arriving we went to Newport where I had my first view of American society. I was young at the time, anxious to amuse myself, and I shall always look back to the month I spent as being quite the pleasantest and happiest I ever remember. The social gatherings were principally composed of very young people, mostly unmarried, although there were many quite elderly ones, particularly men, who entered into the simple pleasures which formed the amusements of the place with as much zest as their juniors. The mode of life was very primitive; hardly any one dined late; very few people had men servants; the dances nearly all took the form of picnics; the ballroom was generally a boarded floor erected in the open air. I was particularly struck by the politeness, civility and courtesy of the men to the women; the great attention and respect they showed them, and the gratitude they evinced for a small favor. I was also astonished by the immense kindness and hospitality with which I, a mere stranger, was received. With the exception of one family I did not know a single person there; still everyone tried to make me feel at home and showed me every kindness in their power.

We left Newport after a month's residence, and after travelling for three months in various parts of America returned to New York in December and remained there, save for a few odd weeks' absence, until the following May.

The houses all struck me as being comfortable, but, though generally richly and expensively furnished, they were by no means elegant, and the appointments were generally far too heavy to be in good taste. There were very few large houses. I only remember four or five, and of these the owners of only two or three, at the most, received company. The dinners and luncheons were lavish, but in most cases the cooks were far from perfect. The female society was mostly composed of very young girls, and though the middle-aged and moneyed men continued to go out in the world—the moneyed women generally remained at home. Most American women at that time appeared after they had reached thirty to lose

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or imagine they had lost their health and good looks, and with these all inclination to amuse themselves or to take part in whatever might be going on. Of course there were very many notable exceptions.

Nearly all the balls were given on the old Almack principle—a certain number of people subscribed together, issued invitations to a favored few, and then gave the entertainments in various public rooms attached to fashionable restaurants, supper being served in the restaurant itself. The verve, go, and thoroughly enjoyable spirit with which these entertainments were conducted were very pleasing and delightful to me. Having gone through two or three London seasons and remembered the languid way my compatriots crawled through a quadrille, and the very painful and awkward manner in which most of my countrymen (who, alas! do not always learn to dance) bumped their unfortunate partners through a polka, waltz or galop, I was naturally enchanted to find men who could dance, and who were not ashamed to own they liked it. At the few private houses where entertainments were given all was, of course, on a small scale. Guests were never announced; the servants were frequently all women and when men were employed they never wore livery. When the supper was served at dances, there was no regular supper-room—but the women and girls sat down all over the house, anywhere, everywhere, on the steps and in the passages, with a napkin on their knees, while their partners waited on them with the oysters and chicken salad, which almost invariably formed the banquet.

It was a most happy little coterie; few were very rich and all was on a comparatively small scale; indeed, the arrangements might be called provincial. There was not much splendor, nor was there great comfort, either. Still, I look back to it with great pleasure and with some regret, when I recollect the amiable, hospitable and innocent group of young people who formed the gay society of New York fourteen years ago.

In so young and so growing a country as the United States ten years count for thirty in Europe. Nevertheless, I was not prepared for the extraordinary and stupendous change which I found had come over New York when I returned there early in the present year. In the matter of pavements, street repairs, clearage of snow, and cabs, New York had made no progress that I could see, unless it were "*en rêculant*," but the moment we left the side streets and

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came to the part of New York where I had lived during my last stay I was amazed. A vista of palaces and fine churches extended for a mile and a quarter to Central Park, which on our last visit was a spot surrounded by a desert. The hotel where apartments had been taken for us was a magnificent building ten stories high, a perfect blaze of electric light, marble, gilding and carving, and all really in excellent taste. The crowds of well-dressed people, the number of restaurants on the ground floor, and the gilt cages of the elevators flying up and down like lightning, quite took my breath away. And when I had been spirited up in a minute to the fifth floor, where there awaited us a splendid suite of rooms, upholstered in silk and furnished with every convenience it was possible to imagine, and in the most luxurious style, I felt in a dream. It was not, however, till the next day that the surprises really began, and they continued during the fortnight we remained in New York. Those houses of which I saw the interiors were one and all remarkable in some way or other. It seemed as if all the artistic treasures of Europe (I do not, of course, allude to pictures or statues) had taken wings and flown to New York. In one house a priceless collection of china; in another a similar one of books, while several houses were decorated with the entire fittings of old French chateaux and hotels. I saw two splendid unique cut mantel pieces, and everywhere beautiful pieces of French furniture of the Louis XIV. and Louis XV. period. In most cases the whole decorations were so beautifully dove-tailed and arranged that it was difficult not to believe they had always been in the places they now occupied.

The entertainments I went to were, as before, on a most lavish and generous scale, accompanied by a generous magnificence which was equally striking whether the party were a large or a small one. The cooking in every house I went to, and, I may add, in every restaurant, was simply perfect.

The beauty of the women and the beauty and good taste of their dress were also very apparent. It was not that one or two were so remarkably handsome, but the fact that they were all so generally good-looking and well-dressed made them different from any people I had seen before. But what I consider the greatest change of all, and the one fraught with the greatest importance to America and her future, is the radical change in the customs, habits, and, I may say, constitutions of the women and children

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in New York in the last fifteen years. All the lovely girls I had known here when I was last in New York were now lovely women. Instead of American women being old at thirty they are now young at forty—they retain health and spirits and good looks, take plenty of exercise, and are constantly in the open air. The race of petted, delicate children, sitting up late and crammed with sweets and ice cream, has given place to troops of rosy boys and girls, who go to bed early, have wholesome meals and look as healthy and bright as the best of our English children at home.

There was one thing, however, I found had not changed in America, and that was the extraordinary kindness and hospitality with which strangers are received. I also found the dances as gay and pleasant as ever, though they are now principally given in private houses and with all the luxury and detail of a London or Paris ball. Everybody, old and young, seemed to be as fond of dancing as ever, and as pleased to take part in a well-led cotillon.

There are doubtless other interesting topics, both about New York itself and other parts of America, by entering on which the extraordinary progress made by this great people in the last fourteen years could, perhaps, be more forcibly shown. Still as the manners, habits, customs, and morals of the wealthier and more powerful classes have always had very great influence on the lower sections of the community in every period of the history of the world, it cannot be amiss for the student of human nature to notice each radical change in them; such changes having always a great and momentous effect on the progress of civilization.

JESSICA SYKES.

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FAULTS IN OUR CONSULAR SERVICE.

BY THE HON. ROBERT ADAMS, JR., RECENTLY U. S. MINISTER TO BRAZIL.

THAT Americans are essentially a careful and progressive people is especially evidenced among our business men. The care with which they select their assistants and the promotion that usually follows efficient and faithful service show a keen appreciation of their self interest. But when they turn to political affairs, they apply an entirely different code of ethics to their treatment of the public business. Nowhere is this illustrated in a greater degree than in the consular service of the United States Government. The method by which the men are chosen for the positions, necessarily brings forth poor candidates, while the short tenure of office, which is generally limited to the presidential term, almost certainly so if a change of party takes place, and the meagre salaries paid—in some posts hardly sufficient to support life in a respectable manner—deters competent men from entering the service. It should also be remembered that there is no promotion for efficient service; that a consul cannot hope for a change of climate from a trying to a more healthy and genial one, after a given period of service, and that there is always the prospect of returning to the United States broken down in health, unfitted to resume private business, and without prospect of further employment at the hands of the Government.

Change of party causes little or no improvement in the *personnel* of the service. The evil lies in the system and not in partisan politics. In this case the degrading and demoralizing doctrine "To the victors belong the spoils" is really not so bad as the attendant and inveterate practice of distributing the spoils for supposed partisan services and according to supposed claims of

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persons and localities with little or no regard to the qualifications of the appointees. Consuls are appointed to reside abroad for the purpose of protecting, facilitating and extending commerce between the countries which appoint them and the countries whither they are sent. Their functions, however, are not limited to commercial transactions. They stand as the protectors and advisers of their countrymen present in foreign lands; they act as judges, notaries and administrators of intestates and of all property of such as have no legal representative; they have to prevent frauds on the revenue, to notice infractions of treaty stipulations relating to trade, to advise their Government of new laws or regulations within their districts, to preserve the discipline of the commercial marine, to guard seamen from oppression, and they are expected to aid the destitute, for which purpose no funds are available except their meagre salary.

Consuls are also required to prepare from time to time reports upon matters affecting commercial, industrial, financial and agricultural interests, regarding labor, rate of wages, hours of work, and the condition of working people. In preparing these reports they are to bear in mind that the principal purpose to be served is the extension and encouragement of American industry at home and of her commerce abroad. Certainly these are duties sufficiently arduous and numerous to require for their faithful performance all the intelligence, honor, and patriotism of the best citizens of the Republic.

The United States has now reached a point in its development where it raises more cereals than it consumes, produces more goods than the people can wear, and more manufactured articles than the country needs. The necessity for foreign markets is pressing home to the people. Men may differ as to the method of securing these, whether under the open principle of Free Trade or the more conservative doctrine of Protection with Reciprocity, but all must agree that an intelligent extension of our commerce can only be effected through reliable information furnished by experienced observers. All people and every section of our country have an almost equal interest at stake, whether it be the farmer of the West seeking to learn the state of the flour market at Rio de Janeiro, the merchant in the East desirous of obtaining reports of the rubber yield at Para or of coffee at Santos, or the manufacturer of locomotives or of agricultural implements as to

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the needs for their productions in Brazil or Argentine. These are but illustrations which could be amplified in every section of our own land and which reach to every country on the globe. That the present system does not furnish such information was evidenced by the acknowledged embarrassment of our State Department in negotiating the recent reciprocal treaties. So great was the *desideratum* that a new bureau was established to gather the missing data, special agents often being sent to obtain the desired information.

The importance of our consular service being recognized as well as the useful part it may be made to play in the hoped-for extension of the foreign trade, the question naturally arises: "How can it be improved?" Two great obstacles appear at the first step in that direction; first the ignorance of the majority of the people of the importance of the consular service as affecting their individual interests, and secondly the "spoils system" that has engrafted itself on our political parties. Let the people understand this question and they will soon insist that Civil Service rules shall be applied to this branch of the Government as they have been to the Post-office and other departments.

The Department of State prides itself upon the fact that below the Assistant Secretary no removals are made except for cause. Why could not this doctrine be extended to the consular service which is under its supervision? What a change would come over our consuls if they should be encouraged to hope for permanence in office, and have removed from their contemplation at every turn of the political tide the degrading spectacle of a basket full of bloody heads rushing at them for their own. Such conditions must either make many men cowards and time-servers or make them stolidly indifferent to the discharge of their duties. What incitement has a man so situated to make a close study of the politics, manners, alliances and commercial necessities of the people among whom he lives, and for making clear and compact statements of these in his reports to his government, for as soon as acquired he may be removed and the information be of no value to him.

Our consuls should be trained for their positions, and pass an examination on such subjects as the laws regulating shipping, the commercial treaties existing between their own and other countries, the laws relating to intestates, on the consular regu-

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lations of the United States, and on such other subjects as relate to their duties. They should also be required to have a practical knowledge of French or of the language of the country to which they are to be sent. It will be demanded: "Where will such a specially educated class come from?" Once it is understood that the service is a permanent one, young men will prepare for it the same as they do for other professions, and in sufficient numbers to arouse competition. That this is not a matter of conjecture was fully established by the experience in Great Britain, when the examination for the civil service was thrown open to all, the number of applicants having increased the first year from five to fifteen thousand, and the character and ability of the applicants having proved as high as, if not better than, that of the selected applicants had been before.

To insure this, however, the salaries must be raised. How can a man be expected to live at Para, in Brazil, under an equatorial sun, exposed to malarial and yellow fevers, and deprived almost entirely of all social intercourse, for $1,500 a year? or, even worse, at Santos, where the town was decimated by yellow fever during the past year, the victims including the United States vice-consul? Yet the importance of the first position to our country can best be stated by the value of the exports to the United States, which amount annually to $7,000,000; while the annual export of coffee alone from the second port to our country is $25,000,000. These cases could be amplified, but they are sufficient to illustrate the present state of affairs.

The false economy of the present system is displayed in the small amount of work performed by the incumbents of our consular posts. They work in proportion to their meagre salaries; no inducement of promotion or reward is held out for a good report. This false economy is further shown in the maintenance of so many unnecessary little posts in Canada and Europe. England has not half the number of consuls in all the United States that we have in the British Isles. These minor posts should be abolished and for the same money that we now spend we might have a well-paid and efficient consular corps.

Nowhere is the adage "the best is the cheapest" more forcibly illustrated than in the consular service. Had it been composed of the proper material no necessity could have arisen for the establishment of the South American Bureau; or, of sending

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special commissioners to the foreign governments to make arrangements for their exhibits at the Columbian Exposition. With an experienced diplomatic corps and with consuls of long residence, speaking the language of the country in which they were stationed, our country would have been spared this great expense.

The consular service should also be made more homogeneous. As at present constituted there is no general supervision over the different consulates in the several countries. They should all be made subservient to the consul-general, or even better, as in the English service, to the Minister accredited to the country in which they are located. As it is some consuls report to the Legation, some to the consul-general, and others direct to the Department of State. This custom arose partly out of the desire to procure quicker mail facilities, but in many instances the postal service has been improved lately, and the cable and telegraph can be used for emergencies. The consuls-general could be dispensed with, or if retained should pay annual visits to the different posts in their districts, a duty at present only permitted in some countries once a year, and by special permission on application to the Department. A novel feature might be substituted to increase the efficiency of the consular service in the institution of several superintendents, whose duty it would be to visit the various consulates and inform the Department in relation to their true state, such as the proper location of the office, the state of the records, the correctness of accounts, as well as to ferret out abuses and inquire into any charge of misconduct, all of which can only be done by personal inspection. Owing to their remoteness, consuls are less under the eye of the appointing power and the espionage of the public press than any class of public officials.

The second division of our service, known as "Class C," composed of consuls who receive a small salary, but who are allowed to engage in private business, should be eliminated. One of the Secretaries of State in his report said "in the greater number of cases the place is sought for chiefly for the advantages and the influence it will give to extend the commercial affairs of the officer." How can such dual interests be attended to with impartial service? The official duties must often conflict with personal gain, and the routine of the office is sure to suffer under pressure of private affairs. The temptation will exist to with-

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hold in their reports commercial or other information detrimental to their own business, and, in consequence, those at home suffer whose very interests the consuls are supposed to represent. How can it be expected that a merchant will attend to instructions having a direct tendency to injure the business which he is conducting?

It is a sad truth that the respect in which the people of our country hold their public servants has been falling off during the last thirty years. How can it be otherwise when it is recognized that places in the public service are obtained by patronage and favoritism? How different it would be were it recognized that a consular appointment became the reward of personal merit and that the official position was itself evidence of good reputation and capacity proved in open competition. Our consular service should be made to rank socially with our army and navy. A pride would then attach to its membership.

The practice of sending mere influential partisans to even the humblest offices in foreign ports has ceased on the part of every European government. The United States stands alone in continuing the unwise old practice. The older nations have aroused themselves for the international war of races and states for the commerce of the world, and as personal rights and interests become more important and sacred the different political communities of the world become more convinced of the necessity of having competent representatives to foster and to protect them.

The United States, however, seems indifferent to the improvement of her consular service, and is apparently unwilling even to follow in the footsteps of her sister nations, but the present effort to extend our foreign trade will be terribly hampered, if not made altogether futile, unless a companion movement is made to improve our consular service.

ROBERT ADAMS, JR.

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AFTER DEATH—WHAT?

BY THE REV. CHARLES F. DOLE.

LET me first tell why I believe in a future life. I am well aware of the difficulties on the physical side. But I am impressed everywhere with the fact that the invisible things—forces, laws, thoughts, ideas, love—are transcendently more important than the mere changing phenomena that we see. Even in the physical world it is "the unseen things that are eternal." Moreover, our minds require a purpose for the universe as truly as they compel us to look for order and unity in it. The idea of moral order, with Beneficence at the heart of things, alone satisfies this demand of the mind for an adequate purpose. But if death ended all what adequate purpose could there be? Or what would the beautiful order be good for, if it worked out nothing but death?

We observe again that for the normal, healthy life of man, for mental sanity and needful moral impulse, the element of hope is an essential factor. It is at least reasonable, since the hope of immortality makes for completeness of life, that it stands for reality. As a rule, man *at his best*, that is, in those times when he most thoroughly realizes the human ideal, is most impressed with the conviction that life and not death is his destiny.

The contemplation of the fullest and most noble lives tends to produce this impression. Whatever may be one's thought about Jesus, it is hardly rational to suppose that such a spirit should be snuffed out like a candle by death. In fact it is incredible, in a world where no atom is lost and where no force is extinguished but merely changed from one form to another, that the lives of good men should utterly perish and ultimately leave nothing in the universe to represent them except the burnt-out planet, the scene of the tragedy of their vain struggles and aspirations.

The truth is that this is a universe full of wonderful possibilities. Even in this life the things that happen to us, if they were predicted beforehand, would often be beyond our power to believe. For various reasons, therefore, I am urged by the stress of all my highest knowledge and experience at the very least to leave wide open the sky-room of hope.

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But how can another life be? This is the difficulty that naturally perplexes us. For even if it were true, that certain persons had been raised from the dead, they have not made the nature of the other life any clearer. I do not, however, find this to be a serious difficulty. In the first place I do not want to know definitely about the future life, any more than I want to be told in advance what will happen next year. The present life is about as much as I can attend to without discounting the future. I wish to preserve the element of surprise.

Moreover, if the other life is in any way different from this life; if, for example, it does not consist in learning arithmetic, raising corn, or making shoes; if there is a large variety in store, how can we have a description of that for which we do not possess the language? It is as though one were to try to tell an Esquimaux about the life in Southern California. The chance is that the incredulous Esquimaux would prefer to stay in Greenland. Unless the future, then, is a dull and monotonous repetition of this life, it may be reverently doubted whether the Almighty could make us understand how that life could be; for, surely, this life itself, from birth onward, is a succession of mysteries, and no man who passes through it could have been told in advance how these things could be.

It seems evident that much that characterizes life might disappear in a future life as completely as the material body. Our mental furniture is largely fitted to the present environment. Our memory consists mostly of things and names. The sweeping away of the English language would not indeed destroy personality, but it would not leave much furniture in our minds. But what reason have we to think that we should want the English language in a future life, or that a man who had learned nothing except to speculate in stocks, would be any more able to carry his earth knowledge along with him than to carry his money? Or, suppose that a man had been a great scientist, does anyone imagine that he would have use for his knowledge of fossils or bacteria? Paul seems to give a hint of these things when he writes "whether there be knowledge, it shall be done away."

Let us take the highest type of man and see what there is left after you remove the present environment and the body of knowledge which merely fits this environment. It is like asking what the man would have if you set him down as a stranger

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in India or China. There are certain mental, moral, and spiritual qualities that would serve such a man wherever he might be. Thus his knowledge of the mathematical relations, his skill and insight into principles, his alertness and habits of mind, his sense of justice, his courtesy and humanity, his good temper, his love and faith, would hold good in India as in America. These qualities would at once make him at home with strange men and a new environment. These qualities would secure friends for him, wherever human beings were. By virtue of such qualities he would have what we may call the *citizenship of the world.*

Science has been teaching us suggestive lessons about the structure of the universe. It is the same stuff that is aflame in Sirius, as in the sun or in the heart of the earth. Gravitation and other laws seem to be universal. One who knows these laws as they work here may know them to the bounds of space. We catch a similar conception of the moral laws of the world. He who has a pure heart, who abides by principle, who has learned to do justly and to love mercy would be at home anywhere in God's universe. The moral and spiritual qualities of which we have spoken seem to give him the *citizenship of the universe.*

It is idle to ask in detail what such an one would do in another life. It is wearisome to be told, as some say, that he will continue to trade or to build railroads. But we can surmise that he would know how to use, control and enjoy the divine forces, that he would there, as here, rejoice to obey the universal laws, that he would find there, as here, order and beauty, that his highest satisfaction would be found there, as here, in love. We may surmise, since the universe is still in process of evolving, since many beings go out of this life with nothing more than the undeveloped germ of a higher nature, and the strong, therefore, continually must live by the side of the weak, that there, as here, he would live the life of a helper and friend.

There is a truth in what the Buddhists call the doctrine of Nirvana. In the highest reaches of the personality, when one is filled with a great and pure love, or when in consecration to duty the will is one with the Good Will, there is the least consciousness of self. In such moments the human spirit seems to transcend time and space and finite limitations. If this experience of "union with God" is the best which life here offers, it would appear to be the earnest of the eternal life. There is

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said to be a beautiful teaching of the Japanese Buddhism, much like the story of Christ, that to those who have won the right to enter into the state of innermost peace, is given the choice of descending again into the struggle of life for the sake of their needy brethren. The law of their being always requires them to choose the path of service. Thus it seems to be true, as long as finite development lasts, that rhythm, contrast, and struggle will continue.

I have raised a question about the permanence of the larger part of the contents of the personal memory. Much that the memory carries, as for example, the eccentricities of English spelling, so far from being needful to the maintenance of the personality, is an incumbrance to the activity of the mind. We need not be surprised, however, if we should discover that there is a world-memory. I mean that in this marvellous universe, where no force is lost and no atom wears out, it is likely that every fact records itself and can be recovered with the right key. Every secret may be brought to the light.

I am aware that there are those who would make the pleasure of heaven to consist chiefly in retrospect. This suited a heaven where there was nothing to do but to sit on thrones. The error was in making life to be some other state from the present. While here we think of life as to be had in heaven; when we arrive there it seems that life will consist in looking back to what we did on earth! The truth is, that the conditions of life are universal. God is present here; heaven may be had here. There would be little ground for believing that God is in a future life, unless we have been impressed with his reality here.

The question is often asked: "What will become of the higher animals, since they, too, have mind and moral affections?" The more startling question is asked: "What will become of beastly savages?" or, "Where do all the children go who die in infancy?" It cannot be thought that all these have acquired citizenship in the universe. There has scarcely been developed in them a personality, or anything by which they would know themselves after their earthly environment was taken away. What clue of any sort do they carry wherewith to maintain their identity? Or what is there in them worth saving, more than so much mind-stuff or soul-stuff? We may believe that nothing precious will be lost; we may hope, too, if any being, a dog or a horse, possesses

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the infinite qualities which make true personality and confer the citizenship of the universe, that somewhere this germ of higher life will have development. But surely the less development here, the more slender must be any bond of identity to connect another life with this.

It is often asked: "Shall we know our friends?" This would seem to depend on what the basis of friendship has been. The lower kind of love involved in selfishness, the friendship that arises out of accidental juxtaposition, can hardly be conceived to hold after the circumstances that made it have disappeared. But there is a kind of love that grows out of the higher nature, another name of which is unselfishness. This love, we think, will know its own "on any sea or shore." All noble souls, who have true love will instinctively know each other. Socrates' dream will come true, that he would recognize the sages to whose order he belonged. In other words, the only ties that can endure death must be real ones. Artificial ties may be expected to snap.

Finally, I would insist that the view of the future life that I have sketched is altogether ethical, as it ought to be. It would have little weight or interest for the immoral. But in a moral universe the anticipation of a future life justly forebodes toil and trouble for the immoral. It is wholesome for the sensualist, the egotist, and the avaricious to consider how little spiritual capital they are laying up with which to enter a future existence. It is wholesome to see that selfishness, by the working of the eternal laws, must debar anyone from "the citizenship of the universe." It is wholesome to reflect, if one wishes to recognize friends in the other life, that friendship must be founded on goodness. The New Testament has the universal teaching, namely, that "whosoever loveth is born of God and knoweth God." He that loveth may, alone, be without fear of death.

The evidence that persuades us of the future life is not outward and physical, but moral and spiritual. If there is in us a nature that partakes of the infinite and is worth saving out of mortal changes, the facts and experiences of this better nature, as it develops, must always be the best witness to its existence, and the prophecy of its immortality.

CHARLES F. DOLE.

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THE NEGRO AS A MECHANIC.

BY THE HON. ROBERT LOWRY, EX-GOVERNOR OF MISSISSIPPI.

CAN the negro be trained as a mechanic, or is he by nature adapted to other work than that of an unskilled laborer? The question may confidently be answered in the affirmative. While this answer cannot be successfully controverted, and while it may have a material bearing on the prosperity of the Southern States, yet it involves grave questions, the successful solution of which would tend to a better understanding of the two sections of this great nation. The negro was held in bondage in all the colonies save one, before the adoption of the Federal Constitution, and whether or not he was the prime cause of the greatest war of modern times, it is unquestionably true that he regards his liberation as the result of that struggle.

Prior to the war there were a large number of negro mechanics in the Southern States; many of them were expert blacksmiths, wheelwrights, wagon-makers, brick-masons, carpenters, plasterers, painters, and shoemakers. They became masters of their respective trades by reason of sufficiently long service under the control and direction of expert white mechanics. During the existence of slavery the contract for qualifying the negro as a mechanic was made between his owner and the master workman.

Now the negro being, in his own words, a "freed man," will not consent to restraints. He cannot divest himself of the idea that apprenticeship in its most modified form is a species of slavery for a term of years. He may be assured of the relation of master and apprentice as it exists in almost every civilized country; still he is slow to embrace it. He appreciates the advantages of superior skill, yet his teachings of liberty are to his mind inconsistent with the exercise of absolute and continued authority over him.

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Many persons in Mississippi and Louisiana remember a firm extensively engaged as contractors and builders of bridges and houses before the war, who owned their entire force of negro mechanics. These gentlemen were natives of Pennsylvania, but neither their education nor their early prejudices against the system of African slavery as it then existed in the Southern States of the Union were strong enough to prevent them from purchasing intelligent young negroes and teaching them to become expert mechanics. Some of these negroes became excellent carpenters, others were trained to be brick-masons and plasterers, and a few of them were taught to be expert iron-workers. This firm built a large number of bridges which spanned various streams in Mississippi, and hundreds of spacious residences and public buildings.

It has never been an unusual sight to see white and negro mechanics working in the same shop or on the same building in any of the Southern States. In the days of slavery it never caused the slightest friction for the two races to be engaged in work together. There never was, and there is not to-day, in any portion of the great and growing South, the slightest objection on the part of the white people to the employment of negro mechanics who are at all capable of performing what is required of them. On the contrary, the men of the South, knowing the good qualities and the docility of the negroes, never withhold employment from them unless it be on large contracts to which the negro mechanics are financially unequal.

Since the war the young negro men have been allured by schemers, white and black alike, into politics, which they have come to believe is the chief end of existence. It is natural for the negro to be a subject of anxious solicitude on the part of those who contributed to his emancipation, as well as those who formerly owned him, and among whom he now lives and will continue to live. In this connection I am constrained to believe that a failure on the part of each section to properly appreciate the aims and objects of the other creates differences and contentions in relation to the condition, needs and welfare of the negro.

With advanced thought and unequalled civilization it is doubtful whether American leadership reaches that high standard erected a half century ago by the great commoner of Kentucky.

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In the words of one who pronounced a eulogy on the life and services of Mr. Clay, which deserves a place among the best productions in the English language, appears the following:

"There was nothing sectional in his policy. His broad and comprehensive genius held in its vision the interests of the whole nation, and his big American heart throbbed for it all. He was intensely American in all his thoughts and all his feelings. To cherish the interests and the glory and to build up the power of his country, and his whole country, was the aim of all his policy and the passion of his life. He knew perfectly the relation which each part of the country bore to the other, and he understood profoundly the character, genius and wants of the American people."

Such leadership to-day, from whatever quarter, divested as it would be of fanaticism and mistaken philanthropy, would be a blessing to this great country.

The recent enfranchisement of the negroes leads them to look with deep-rooted aversion and hostility to entering into an indenture as an apprentice for two or more years, even for the acquirement of proficiency as a first-rate mechanic. They have an idea that they are abridging their own liberty, as indeed they do during the term of their indenture, forgetting that, while thus restricting their freedom of action for a few years, they are acquiring a familiarity with a mechanical trade which may be, and often is, of priceless value. There is but little difficulty in training an intelligent negro to be a mechanic. In all the cities and towns in the South he is to be found engaged in such employment, and his proficiency is only retarded by impediments and obstructions which, through the influence of others, he makes for himself. If the negro without education or mental training could make a reasonably good mechanic, it follows that education would largely increase his skill as a workman.

The people of Mississippi, and, so far as I am advised, of all the Gulf States, have assumed the obligation of affording the children of both races and sexes the most ample facilities for obtaining a common-school education free of charge. In addition to the revenue raised in Mississippi for the purpose mentioned, the State has for years contributed, and is now contributing, in part to the support of an institution for colored boys and girls, in which an industrial superintendent has been added to the corps of instructors. The industrial department of this institution embraces the making of wagons, carpenter work, blacksmith and tin shops, besides other industries, all of which are success-

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fully conducted by the students, under the supervision of the industrial teacher.

The negro is an intensely imitative and excitable creature. When under the influence of excitement he is subject to the greatest excesses. Free from excitement, his capacity for labor, under proper control, is and can be profitably utilized.

The American who is reasonably informed of his country's history will not fail to remember that party spirit was regarded by Washington as the bane of our institutions; and this becomes doubly intensified by sectional animosities in which the negro, through others, has come to be an important factor. The imitative quality in negroes of both sexes is constantly observed in every-day life in the South; not only is it observable in the negro man, but it is equally marked in the more intelligent colored woman. She adopts with facility the styles and fashions of the leading ladies of society. Not only so, but some colored women become expert mantua-makers, and cut, fit, and make expensive gowns for white ladies of wealth.

Another reason why the negroes of the South are averse to being taught mechanical trades is to be found in what they understand to be the hostility of the white mechanics of the North against the negro mechanic. They assert as their information, and insist that it is true, that young negroes are not allowed to learn a mechanical trade in any city or town in the North or West. As white mechanics are nomadic in their habits and wander from State to State, city to city, and town to town, so the negro of any age or sex is more of a nomad than his pale-faced brother; yet his fixed opinion seems to be that in the pursuit of his trade he cannot venture beyond the confines of his own State or the neighboring Southern States with any certainty of remunerative employment based upon proficiency. Therefore, objecting to the restraints imposed in learning a trade at home, alleging that it borders upon a species of slavery, and assuming that because of the color of his skin he would be debarred from an even chance as a "bread-winner" among white mechanics of the North, he floats on the sluggish tide of indolence and idleness, with not much care of what a day may bring forth.

That the more intelligent negro has abundant capacity to become a reasonably good mechanic there can be no question; but his crude ideas of freedom, his want of appreciation of citizen-

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ship, the cheap diet upon which he subsists, the genial climate that requires but a humble shelter, and the heretofore annual excitement attending political elections, all tend to divert his mind from any fixed object or occupation. He will not become proficient in the mechanical field, even with the rudiments of education, until he can divest himself of false traditions and prejudices pertaining to his future exemption from slavery, and thoroughly understands that it requires time and close service to master the trade of the mechanic. The great mass of negroes are engaged in agriculture, and these are more contented than those who follow other pursuits; but all need protection from the constant political strife to which they have been subjected.

The constitution of Mississippi has fixed the tenure of State and county offices at four years, and from and after 1895 elections other than Congressional will recur only every fourth year. This change in the fundamental law, it is believed, will add to the peace and quietude of the State. It is difficult to understand by any process of reasoning why sectional animosities caused by slavery should be kept alive a quarter of a century after the institution had been abolished. True it is that the white and black races are separated by a gulf that cannot be spanned; but the fair inference of the civilized world was that broad statesmanship would so adjust the relations between the races as to develop the greatest amount of good in the former slave, and, if possible, lead him to a higher plane of civilization. All should generously unite in contributing to his mental elevation and moral training, and thus fit him for greater efficiency in agricultural pursuits, and afford those who seek skilled labor an opportunity of entering that field.

Although slavery existed prior to the adoption of the Federal Constitution, and at that time and for many years thereafter was considered an unavoidable evil, yet the institution, coupled with other causes, cost the Government hundreds of thousands of valuable lives and billions of money. The negro was not only guiltless as to the differences that precipitated the war, but was not a participant to any appreciable extent. He remained loyal to his owner during the protracted struggle. Liberated in poverty and ignorance, he appealed to all parties and all fair-minded men for protection against improper manipulations, and for direction in the channels of industry to which he is adapted.

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It should be understood that, in dealing with great questions affecting directly or remotely the people of the whole country, material differences exist between statesmen of high rank, and in the submission of policies for adoption the masses who are less versed in governmental matters, but who bear the burdens, pass upon and determine the issues.

It is gratefully understood, too, that philanthropists like Mr. Peabody, Mr. Corcoran, Mr. Slater, and others, whose memories are cherished by the American people and whose great hearts embraced mankind, devoted the accumulations of a lifetime to charitable and benevolent purposes; but it is difficult to comprehend why, in a government of the largest liberty under the sun, there should be such great diversity of views in reference to the training and civilization of a race of people known to be vastly inferior either to the Anglo-Saxon or Latin race. A quarter of a century has passed since the freedom of the negro was proclaimed; yet American statesmanship seems not to have been equal to the solution of the great problem of his mental, moral, and physical elevation.

Another obstacle that suggests itself to converting colored youths into skilled workmen lies in the hostility of the various mechanical trades to allowing more than an infinitesimal percentage of apprentices, even of the white race. This mistaken policy has its growth in the perpetual fear of home competition, while the doors are left wide open to an innumerable swarm of skilled workmen from other lands.

With the removal of the obstacles to which reference has already been made, there can be no question that the more intelligent young negroes in the Southern States can readily acquire in the various mechanical trades the skill necessary to make them expert workmen, as carpenters, cabinet-makers, blacksmiths, shoemakers, tailors, painters, tinners, paper-hangers, upholsterers and plasterers. The removal of these obstacles, and the accomplishment of the purpose aimed at will undeniably redound to the benefit of both races, and will certainly elevate the negro, and promote his happiness, prosperity, and self-respect in a very remarkable degree.

ROBERT LOWRY.

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MIDDLE-CLASS LIFE IN FRANCE.

BY THE MARQUISE DE SAN CARLOS.

WHAT does the word *bourgeois* mean? Mistrusting my own judgment, I applied to a distinguished member of the French Institute and one of the most venerable representatives of the old régime, in order to learn his opinion on the subject. But he launched forth into so long and laborious a history of the Bourgeois or Commoner of the middle ages, and city charts and townsfolk generally, in comparison with the nobility and the *tiers état*, that, losing all patience, I risked an interruption and told him I had learned all that at school years ago, and that what I wanted to know just now was simply the modern signification attached to the word *bourgeois*.

Looking quite as startled at my interruption as he was perplexed at my question, the kind old gentleman gave a deep sigh, and answered: "Madame, what a *bourgeois* means to-day I cannot tell. Now that everybody may become a gentleman, as the English say, we have no more nobles, no more *bourgeois*, no more *tiers état*.

But I knew that bourgeois still meant something in France, for I remember a certain little speech made at one of Madame Adam's receptions. A charming young artist was excusing herself for singing with a cold, when our hostess said in her genial way: "No need of excuses, my dear; we all understand perfectly the disadvantages under which you labor and appreciate only the more the art you display: *il n'y a pas de bourgeois parmi nous.*"

Ah! then the bourgeois exists, and in that little coterie of art and science not belonging to the nobility the bourgeois is looked down upon as well as by the latter.

While musing one day over these strange contradictions I chanced to notice a man in a blouse daubing the walls of my

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vestibule, and, addressing him as a representative of the lower classes, I called out: "My friend, *qu'est ce qu'un bourgeois?*" With a scowl of hatred he muttered: "*Un rentier pardi!*"

Here, then, lay the clue. Yes, *bourgeois* is the man who has ceased to work, who lives on his hard-earned income. And the *bourgeosie* is that immense body of the French nation which represents *l'epargne*, or, in other words, capitalized savings. The *bourgeois* is the man who has made his money cent by cent during the first three-quarters of his life, and who spends it in pretty much the same proportion during the last remaining quarter. As long as he works he is not a *bourgeois*. But as soon as he retires from business and lives on his income, however small it may be, he becomes *Monsieur Bourgeois*.

To reach this goal has been his one ambition through a lifetime of want and labor, and I fancy Heaven itself would appear an almost superfluous recompense to those who have actually attained this stage of human felicity. The *bourgeois* thinks of nothing, aspires to nothing, but to make money, not in a gay, off-hand, haphazard way, but ever cautiously, calculating over a centime or silently grasping at a penny. And the *bourgeois* in this case means the woman as well as the man, the wife as well as the husband, for both work on untiringly, attached by the same bonds to the yoke of labor.

I remember once accompanying a friend to a Paris confectioner's. She was a wealthy American who spent money lavishly. On this particular occasion she paid an unusually large bill, and while waiting for the change ate a tempting "fondant." We were leaving the shop when she suddenly remembered it, and, turning to the saleswoman, with one of her beaming smiles, she said: "I have eaten one of your pretty bonbons; what do I owe you?"

"Two cents," answered the woman, unhesitatingly.

Had not those ten centimes been discounted already by the proprietor? No Frenchman throws away two sous on a client unwittingly; no more than a French client would think of eating two sous' worth of candy without paying for it. The *bourgeois* knows too well what it costs to make two sous in an old country, and the rich man knows exactly the amount of pleasure he is entitled to expect from the same two sous.

While writing the above lines a reminiscence of South American life has come back so forcibly to me that, although somewhat

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of a diversion, it may serve as a *repoussoir* to my Frascati experience.

Having spent three years in a half-civilized, half-outlandish place, where every morning a sunburnt "guagiro" brought me six earthen jugs of fresh milk, I sent for him one day to pay him his last month's earnings before sailing back to Europe, and bade him continue bringing half a jug daily for a few weeks longer to a servant remaining on the premises. I afterwards learned that the poor "guagiro" had stoutly refused the slightest remuneration for these last fifteen jugs, on the ground that we had paid him money enough during three years. Yet this man never expected to meet us again.

By this time the Parisian confectioner has, no doubt, shaken from off his sandals the flour of his thriving little pastry establishment, and now lives in some beautiful modern building near the "Arc de l'Etoile," whereas the sun-burnt "guagiro" will die far away in his palm-thatched hut, and his deathbed will be illumined only by the cold light of stars.

But, returning to our French *bourgeois*, from the day he leaves school we find him an apprentice to his father. He knows to a farthing what his parents gain and how they set about it, and while still a boy he draws in his neat and orderly little mind the commonplace castle in the air he desires to inhabit during his old age, and he will retire from business as soon as he has secured the means of realizing it, be it after twenty, thirty, or forty years of incessant labor. He not only overworks himself, as a rule, but he bears any amount of privations, until he has made just so much capital as is requisite to live upon after the manner of his choice. The owner of a small shop dreams of a brick cottage and a tiny garden; the inhabitant of the fifth story aspires to an apartment on the third floor, and he who lives "au premier" wants a *hotel* of his own or a château in the country.

Many gay villages in the outskirts of Paris are inhabited by these happy little people. Thus at one place we have Monsieur and Madame Jacques, who are perfect types of the *petit bourgeois*, the *petit rentier*. Monsieur Jacques owned a brewery in Paris and worked there for thirty-seven years. His wife was a milliner and had a little establishment of her own. Monsieur Jacques is as fat and redolent as one of his own beer casks, while Madame Jacques has a wrinkled old face that reminds one of a faded lace bonnet.

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Having reached the Elysian fields of *la Retraite*—retirement from business—they would both be perfectly happy were not Monsieur Jacques pursued by the idea that he might have sold the "Brasserie Normande" for a thousand francs more had he only held out a little longer. And if you want to know Madame Jacques's sore point, ask her who she is going to leave her pretty little brick cottage to, and you will see a tear trickle down the withered cheeks as she remembers the child she bore to the grave over twenty years ago.

The Jacques' neighbors are Monsieur and Madame Roy. In the first half of this century, Monsieur Roy was a barber's boy at Biarritz, and joined the army in the days when his mustache held its own as stiffly as that of Napoleon III., to which glorious advantage over his companions he probably owed his advancement. Now he lives on a government pension of seven hundred francs a year. These two good souls would likewise be perfectly happy had not the doctor kindly informed them that Monsieur Roy was in the last stage of heart disease, since when his wife repeats, to all who care to hear the tale, that as soon as her husband dies she will have only three hundred francs a year to live upon.

Their bedstead, which was a wedding present and has travelled after them all over France, literally fills one of their two tiny rooms, while the other is enlivened with gay colored curtains, a sideboard, a table, and some mahogany chairs. Indeed, this very small cot is a picture of cleanliness and order. A jug of flowers is always somewhere in sight, and a pile of illustrated papers lies on the table. A print of the Empress Eugénie and a cage full of canaries hang on the wall, while Madame Roy's sewing-machine keeps time to her husband's whistling, as he digs his bit of ground and plants small squares of potatoes and cabbages, with roses and heartsease for borders.

Still a little farther on we have the François establishment. It looks quite grand to the country people as they gaze into the small courtyard through the fancy iron gateway and wonder what grows in the miniature hothouse. I once called there on a sick-errand. There being no time to open the sitting-room, which is always kept locked up and in darkness, and is used only on such occasions as marriages, baptisms, and funerals, Madame François received me in the kitchen. This room is so small that it seemed

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more suitable for a modern dollhouse than for grown-up people to live in. When I went upstairs to visit the invalid, I wondered if I would be able to turn around at the top and come down again without sticking fast between the wall and the banisters. But, oh, the cleanliness of every corner, the polish of every pot and jug, in that spic-and-span little house! Madame François triumphantly told me that it was so clean because she had no servants! No, she had not patience enough to see things badly done. And yet Madame François's daughter, who spends months at a time with her mother, is married to Messieurs X & Co.'s head clerk, a man who will be ere long a partner of the firm, and from thence to finding himself on a level with Mallets and Rothschilds there is but a step.

These comfortable French housewives, these "*ménagères de race,*" take such keen pleasure in doing things themselves that they rarely keep servants: a "*bonne à tout faire*"—a maid of all work—at best. As to their cooking—the *cuisine bourgeoise*—it is quite delicious, and forms the staple aristocrats live upon when nobody sees them. The specialty of this wholesome *cuisine* consists in its savory gravies: *gibelotte de lapin, ragout de mouton* and the like. The *bourgeois* has seldom more than one dish at a meal, but the absorption of gravy with pounds upon pounds of bread, with which they may be said to "lick the platter clean," seems to make up about as much solid nourishment and reconstituting substance as all the blood-streaming chops and beefsteaks that render English people so large-boned and raw-looking.

Indeed, the genuine French *bourgeois* does not know what dyspepsia means—pneumonias and typhoids are their swords of Damocles. They have calculated to a grain how much bread they can eat and to a drop how much wine they may drink. Hot rolls and fresh pastry are things never seen on their tables. A quarter of a pear is the most they take at a time: "pears lying cold on the stomach"—and even candies are never eaten out of hours. Over-eating seldom kills a Frenchman; whereas many succumb to the consequences of poor diet.

I know a dear little *bourgeoise* who has damask silk curtains and a piano in her drawing-room, whose daughter attends a fashionable boarding-school, but who eats beef on Sundays only, and fills up the rest of the week with sausages, tripe and sundry gravies. The girl is about fifteen, tall and slim, and looks as

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though she were going into consumption. To expostulate with the mother about the child's fare is useless. *"On mange selon ses moyens,"* is her invariable answer on such occasions, and then she goes on to explain how she was brought up on far poorer food, and was never the worse for it. But the mother forgets that she grew up in the hardy, barefooted life of a mountain village, and that her daughter is living in the vitiated atmosphere of a city, spending her girlhood in the cruel stocks of school regulations. But nothing will convince my good little friend that a few chops would be better than silk curtains, and plenty of beefsteak more useful than learning the piano. Had they been richer they would have eaten more ; had they been poorer or more numerous they would have eaten still less.

Such petty details as the above may serve to give an insight into the general characteristics of the French *bourgeois*. For this reason also do I dwell particularly on the *petit bourgeois*, who is by far the more numerous, the big bourgeois resembling his counterpart all over the world. The *bourgeois* is the Frenchman with whom foreigners have the most to do and of whom they know the least. For has not the *bourgeois* been his tailor or his shoemaker before he has become his landlord or his neighbor ?

On the other hand, the bourgeois himself knows nothing at all about anything else in the world but his own *métier* ; he has never taken an interest in anything else, never read anything not absolutely necessary for his business transactions. He never travels ; but looks down upon travellers as a degenerate race of people who cannot keep still and enjoy life in their own country, and considers them at best eccentric specimens of humanity who have never been properly brought up or taught the right way of doing things and who are tolerated only because they are stupid enough to empty their heavy money-bags into empty French ones.

Generation after generation the *bourgeois* continues counting over the same centimes. His fare, his thoughts, his conversation, his daily walks, never change. His parents left him their tools with a corresponding supply of ideas and words and habits which it will never occur to him to alter. There is no spontaneousness about him ; never a pleasant surprise for the home circle ; never a present beyond a bouquet or a box of bonbons on stated anniversaries ; very little reading, if any ; balls and theatres are few and far between ; friendly gatherings of an evening or unceremonious

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invitations to dinner are unheard-of expenses, resorted to only in honor of some great event or when there may be some grave family question to resolve.

If our future *bourgeois* be very poor he inhabits some dark corner in the back of his shop, or has a miniature flat near the skies; if he be in better circumstances, he occupies a third or fourth story, has mahogany furniture and rep curtains.

When a peasant passes rapidly through the ranks of the *bourgeoisie* and enters those of the nobility or the artistic world, he retains something of nature's lore as a birthright and the wide expanse of the fields and the glow of sunsets warm his soul with that heavenly gift, "*feu sacré.*" But when a *bourgeois* has continued making and selling the same buttons, or thimbles, or carriages, or jewels, in just the same shop and just the same street through six or seven generations, he grows into the personification of "*l'infiniment petit,*" and his grandchildren, married, perhaps, to dukes and countesses, often present curious cases of atavism.

Perhaps fortune designates our bourgeois to be the "one in a million," the lucky fellow who owns the "Bonheur des Dames" or the "Bouillon Durand." Then he plays "*le grand seigneur,*" buys a glorious old castle with a thousand acres of woodland, and since "*la sportomanie a transformé en ecurie le dernier salon,*" as Arsène Houssaye wittily remarks, he soon works his way into the aristocracy.

It is in our nineteenth-century stables that the nobleman and the bourgeois are both destined to disappear. Let us hope they may leave us in their stead—a gentleman.

LOLA DE SAN CARLOS.

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THE FINANCIAL SITUATION.

I.—THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY AND THE CURRENCY.

BY THE HON. R. P. BLAND, CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON COINAGE, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

For the first time for over thirty years the Democratic party finds itself in power in the executive and legislative departments of the Federal Government. The appalling demands upon the resources of the country to meet the enormous appropriations of money—nearly one-half of which is for pensions alone; an onerous system of taxation, and yet a depleted and bankrupted treasury; a makeshift and disjointed currency system satisfactory to no one; problems of imperialism presented in the questions of the annexation of foreign territory and peoples; all these pressing for consideration will require conservative statesmanship and patriotic endeavor to successfully meet and provide for them.

If the party is true to its principles as taught by its greatest leaders of the past, Jefferson, Madison, Jackson, and Benton, the way to success is already pointed out. This article, however, will be confined to the question of currency.

What shall it be?

History is to repeat itself.

It is only necessary to call attention to the fact that nearly all the conflicts of the past between the Democratic party and its opponents on the currency question have taken the form of a contest between the advocates of hard money (so-called)—the coin of the constitution—gold and silver, and the advocates of National-Bank credit issues. The Democratic party for the most part was in power in this government from the beginning till 1860. The first Mint Act of 1792, in conformity with the constitution, founded our system upon the principles of the dual standard of gold and silver,

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with free or unlimited coinage of both. This system the Democratic party never disturbed, but on the contrary kept open mints for the coinage of both metals.

In the memorable battles over these issues in the days of Democratic ascendency the fight was waged along the lines of opposition on the part of the Democrats to national banks and in favor of the free use of gold and silver. The fact that in these discussions and in the legislation that followed, especially in the days of Benton, there was a seeming preference on the part of the Democratic party for gold, must be explained in the light of the history of the time. There was no thought of issuing paper legal-tenders to take the place of bank paper. At that time it was not generally supposed that Congress had the power to issue paper legal-tenders for private debts.

National banks were objected to by Democrats on the broad principle that the system contemplated a monopoly by private corporations over the finances—the power to expand and contract the currency, the power over legislation and the politics of the country; that such powers tended to centralization and finally to the usurpation and domination of our currency system. In the light of the present and of recent history we can see how well founded these objections were.

In order to answer all the arguments in favor of bank currency as preferable to coin, resting upon the fact that paper was lighter to handle and more convenient in all respects than coin, the ratio was changed in 1834–37, so as to overvalue gold and thus attract it here to be used in competition with bank notes. This was done by diminishing the amount of gold in the dollar; no change was made as to the silver dollar—a gold dollar being by the ratio then and now established sixteen times lighter than the silver dollar, and hence the gold eagle, or ten-dollar piece, being one hundred and sixty times per weight lighter than ten dollars of silver. Gold could better answer the use in large transactions than silver, and in that was a more effectual competitor of paper issues than silver. For this reason only, a seeming preference was given to gold. But the Democratic party in all its history never demonetized either gold or silver. Free or unlimited coinage for both was always preserved. It does not seem that the methods of issuing paper on gold and silver coin dollar for dollar was thought of by Benton, Jackson and others

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in their great contests against National Banks. Our present system obviates every objection to silver on the ground of inconvenience. In this short review it is seen that the Democratic party before the late civil war was opposed to a system of currency based on National banks. The following is a quotation from General Jackson's farewell address :

"In reviewing the conflicts which have taken place between the different interests in the United States, and the policy pursued since the adoption of our present form of government, we find nothing that has produced such a deep-seated evil as the course of legislation in relation to the currency.

. . . . . .

"When the charter for the Bank of the United States was obtained from Congress, it perfected the scheme of the paper system, and gave to its advocates the position they had struggled to obtain from the commencement of the Federal Government down to the present hour. The distresses and sufferings inflicted on the people by the banks are some of the fruits of that policy, which is continually striving to enlarge the authority of the Federal Government beyond the limits fixed for it by the Constitution. The powers enumerated in that instrument do not confer on Congress the right to establish such a corporation as the Bank of the United States.

"It behooves you, therefore, to be watchful in your States, as well as in the Federal Government. The power which the moneyed interest can exercise when concentrated under a single head, and with our present system of currency, was sufficiently demonstrated in the struggle made by the banks of the United States. . . . The time will soon come when it will again take the field against the United States, and succeed in perfecting and perpetuating its organization, by a charter from Congress.

"The paper-money system and its natural associates, monopoly and exclusive privileges, have already struck their roots deep in the soil, and it will require all your efforts to check its further growth and to eradicate the evil. . . . It will require steady and persevering exertions on your part to rid yourselves of the iniquities and mischiefs of the paper system and to check the spirit of monopoly and other abuses which have sprung up with it, and of which it is the main support. So many interests are united to resist all reforms on this subject that you must not hope the conflict will be a short one, nor success easy."

Continuing the record of the Democratic party upon the subject of National Banks we will give the record of the most significant votes upon this subject in both houses of Congress during the existence of the present system.

The Act of February 12, 1863. The bill providing for National-Bank currency was taken up in the Senate February 12, and voted upon and passed—ayes 23 ; including 22 Republicans and 1 Democrat : nays 21 ; 12 Democrats and 9 Republicans. In the House of Representatives this bill was voted on—ayes 78 ;

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75 Republicans and 3 Democrats : nays 64 ; 42 Democrats and 22 Republicans. The supplement Act of June 3, 1864, was voted on in the House of Representatives April 18, 1864. The bill passed—ayes 80, all Republicans : nays 66 ; 65 Democrats, 1 Republican. The bill to re-charter these National Banks passed the House of Representatives May 19, 1882—ayes 125 ; 103 Republicans, 22 Democrats : nays 67 ; 57 Democrats, 2 Republicans, 8 Greenbackers. The bill passed the Senate amended on June 22—ayes 34 ; 26 Republicans, 8 Democrats : nays 13 ; 12 Democrats, 1 Republican. The Conference Report by which the bill passed and became a law was voted on in the House on July 10, 1882—ayes 110, 99 Republicans and 11 Democrats : nays 79 ; 69 Democrats, 2 Republicans, 8 Greenbackers.

This record shows conclusively that a large majority of the Democrats in the House and in the Senate have up to this period steadily opposed the national-banking system. It is to be presumed they will continue to do so. It must be plain that there can be no legislation by the Democratic party favorable to a currency supplied by any national-banking system. It is important, therefore, to review the recent record of the party looking to other methods of monetary supply. That the party has made a uniform record in favor of treasury notes in preference to National-Bank currency is shown also by many votes in the House and Senate.

In the House of Representatives, January 17, 1870, Mr. McNeely offered a resolution providing for the substitution of treasury notes or greenbacks for bank notes. On this question the yeas were 56 ; 53 Democrats and 3 Republicans : nays 114 ; 112 Republicans and 2 Democrats. Substantially the same question came up in the House of Representatives on motion of Mr. Randall, of Pennsylvania, July 14, 1870. On this vote the yeas were 51; 41 Democrats, 10 Republicans : nays 111 ; 105 Republicans, 6 Democrats.

Pending the consideration of the bill to re-charter the National Banks the author hereof moved amendments, the effect of which was to substitute treasury notes for bank notes, and to prohibit further issuance of bank notes. On this question the ayes were 71 ; 65 Democrats, 2 Republicans and 4 Independents : nays 138 ; 114 Republicans, 19 Democrats, 5 Greenbackers or Independents.*

*See House Journal, Forty-seventh Congress, pp. 1274-1281.

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These citations are given to show that as choice between national bank and treasury notes the Democratic sentiment is overwhelming for the latter. On the question of restoring silver to our coinage the record is also significant in this connection. The Act for the free coinage of silver was passed in the House December 13, 1876—ayes 168; 124 Democrats, 44 Republicans: nays 53; 17 Democrats and 36 Republicans. There was no action on this bill in the Senate.

In the House, November 5, 1877, the following proceedings took place.* The Speaker announced as the regular order of business the motion of Mr. Bland, that the rules be suspended so as to enable him to introduce, and the House to pass, a bill of the following title, viz.: "A bill (H. R. 1,093) to authorize the coinage of a dollar of 412½ grains silver standard, and for other purposes," pending when the House adjourned on Monday last, and the question being put, it was decided in the affirmative (two-thirds voting in favor thereof)—yeas 164; 97 Democrats and 67 Republicans; nays 34; 10 Democrats and 24 Republicans. This bill was amended in the Senate by what is known as the Allison amendment, and thus passed the Senate—yeas 48; 25 Democrats, 23 Republicans: nays 21; 7 Democrats and 14 Republicans. This bill, as it passed the Senate, was agreed to by the House and was vetoed by President Hayes. It was passed over the veto in the House February 28, 1878—yeas 196; 122 Democrats, 74 Republicans: nays 73; 21 Democrats and 52 Republicans. It was also passed in the Senate on the same date, the veto notwithstanding—yeas 46; 25 Democrats and 21 Republicans: nays 19; 9 Democrats and 10 Republicans.

During the first session of the Fifty-first Congress, on motion to pass the Sherman bullion purchase bill, a motion was made by the writer to re-commit the bill with instructions to report back a bill for the free coinage of silver.† On this vote there were—yeas 116; 101 Democrats and 14 Republicans, 1 Wheeler: nays 140; 127 Republicans and 13 Democrats. The most recent vote on this question was at the first session of the Fifty-second Congress. In the House on March 17, 1892, on a motion to table the free-coinage bill the yeas were 148; 81 Democrats and 67 Republicans: nays 149; 130 Democrats, 11 Republicans, 8 People's

* Journal, first session (extra session) Forty-fifth Congress, pp. 143, 144.
† House Journal, first session Fifty-first Congress, pp. 714, 715.

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Party. These records are produced to show the evident tendency of the Democratic party away from the plan of National-Bank currency to the currency supported by the precious metals, gold and silver.

Senator Benton, of Missouri, in his "Thirty Years in the United States Senate," stated what he then conceived to be the true Democratic theory of the currency question in the following terse and eloquent language (Vol. 1, page 187):

I am willing to see the charter expire, without providing any substitute for the present bank. I am willing to see the currency of the federal government left to the hard money mentioned and intended in the Constitution. I am willing to have a hard-money government, as that of France has been since the time of *assignats* and *mandats*. Every species of paper might be left to the State authorities, unrecognized by the federal government, and only touched by it for its own convenience when equivalent to gold and silver. Such a currency filled France with the precious metals, when England, with her overgrown bank, was a prey to all the evils of unconvertible paper.

It furnished money enough for the imperial government when the population of the empire was three times more numerous, and the expense of government twelve times greater, than the population and expenses of the United States; and when France possessed no mines of gold or silver, and was destitute of the exports which command the species of other countries. The United States possess gold mines now yielding half a million per annum, with every prospect of equalling those of Peru. But this is not the best dependence. We have what is superior to mines, namely, the exports which command the money of the world; that is to say, the food which sustains life, and the raw material which sustains manufactures.

Gold and silver is the best currency for a republic; it suits the men of middle property and the working people best; and if I was going to establish a workingman's party it should be on the basis of hard money; a hard money party against a paper party.

In the days of Benton and Jackson, as well as now, there were many influential Democrats whose sympathies were with the National-Bank party, and who were ready to discard the money of the people issued from the mints of the government and the notes of the Treasury, based on coin, for National-Bank paper isued by the hand of monopoly. But now, as then, a large majority of the party are materially opposed to the principle of financial control by such means. They are not disposed to see the money of the Constitution subverted and the credit of individuals and corporations substituted. It must be apparent to all close observers of current popular sentiment that any currency system which presupposes a permanent interest-bearing debt will not be tolerated by our people.

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A permanent public debt saddled with the power to be used to control and manipulate Congressional legislation upon the financial question is contrary to the genius of our institutions, and as Mr. Benton well said, "is not suited for a republic." Mr. Seligman, a New York banker, in his testimony before the Congressional Committee investigating the Panama Canal scandal in this country as well as France, made it plain how the argus eyes of the thousands of banks of issue in this country, focussed on the Congress through the means of a subsidized press and telegraph, might be brought to bear to create public apprehensions and thus terrorize Congress to do their corrupt bidding. We want no dictation from this quarter, nor any such copartnership in our financial system.

If the Democratic party is true to its teachings and present tendencies it will, in time, restore the country where the Constitution and the Fathers put it, that is, the right to the free use of both precious metals as money, and bank paper to be relegated where it belongs, viz., the various States. This will decentralize our present system. It will take from National Banks the power to control Congress in the interests of monetary and political centralization—a centralization that means legislation for the rich and powerful banks and the consequent degradation of the States and impoverishment of the people. We are fast entering upon an era in our history when these issues must be met and fought out, as they were met and settled in the days of Jackson and Benton.

It would be well for the Democratic party and for the country could the questions of taxation and reduction of pensions, as well as a reduction of expenditures all along the line, be settled before entering the bitter struggle over the money question. The money question must, however, be met sometime. When it is forced as the issue it may develop a necessity for a reorganization of political parties. The battle of the standards is the coming battle the world over, when it is pushed to the front for final settlement—the question as to whether silver shall be placed at its old status as the equal, if not the superior, of gold in our financial system, or totally demonetized. It will be a battle royal.

The time is not to be long deferred when this battle of the standards will be fought to a finish. On the one side will be arrayed the rich and powerful banks of the Old World and of the

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New; on the other, the mass of our people, especially those west of the Allegheny Mountains, loaded down as they are with debts and mortgages, with a vast country yet to be touched by the hand of industry and enterprize, demanding money without limit except as to its supply from nature.

The money question when brought forward for final solution must of necessity involve the question of the standard; whether it shall be a standard resting upon both metals, gold and silver, or the single standard of gold. Compromises and makeshifts have heretofore only checked the fighting. When pressed forward, as it seems may be done ahead of tariff, and all other reforms promised by the Democratic party, the peril of defeat for tariff reductions, pension reforms, and other reforms in our expenditures is great. It may be that those who wish to postpone and defeat tariff reform are more than willing to press other great measures ahead of it. The Democratic party will make a great mistake if such should be the policy adopted.

It is difficult to see how any more compromises can be had on the question of the currency; especially will it be difficult to reconcile the conflict between the demand for total demonetization of silver and its unconditional restoration. When the question is again pressed forward it is difficult to see how there can be any other solution—the total abandonment of silver or its restoration to its constitutional privileges at our mints. The special plea to await the concurrence of other nations can no longer be entertained. The last international conference at Brussels developed the fact that there is no probability of any agreement on this question.

The time has come when our sixty-five or seventy millions of people must act independently. No limping or stilted standard such as we now have can long survive. Silver is either a safe money metal or it is not. If it is not suitable for free coinage it ought not to be further coined. If it is suitable for coinage at all it ought not to be debased by limiting its coinage.

It is fair to assume that the Democratic party will still oppose National Banks, that this party will not tolerate the increase and manipulation of the public debt for the purpose of turning over or farming out our system of money to banks of issue. If so the logical result is to look to silver and gold to take the place of bank issues. Gold is not sufficient to answer this purpose, hence

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silver must and will continue to constitute our supply to meet the great demands made for money by our vastly increasing business and population.

What safer system can be devised than that of gold and silver freely coined, with the coin note issue in the metal as a basis, dollar for dollar? There can be none. As to the ratio or relative amount of the metals that shall be equal in debt-paying power, that is now, as it always has been, a question under the Constitution for Congress to determine.

It is possible that a compromise may again be effected by the amendment or repeal of the Sherman law and the substitution of a system that would coin all silver bullion coming into the hands of the government, basing all notes on the silver dollar, without the gold redemption clause, as in the Act of 1878, known as the Bland-Allison Act, with increase of the minimum amount authorized to be coined by that Act. But the difficulties in the way of this are many, for the opponents of silver would probably oppose it, and no true friend of silver could counsel anything less as a substitute for the present law, defective though it confessedly is.

R. P. BLAND.

II.—THE BRUSSELS CONFERENCE REVIEWED.

BY THE HON. CHARLES FOSTER, EX-SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

IT IS not my purpose to formulate any proposition for the United States that in my opinion ought to be proposed to the adjourned meeting of the International Monetary Conference when it reassembles in Brussels in May next, or to express an opinion as to the probable result of such meeting, but to present in a brief form the reasons actuating the President and the Secretary of the Treasury in calling the Conference, the steps taken to secure the coöperation of the different governments, a synopsis of the proceedings, and the impressions to be gathered therefrom. From these *data* your readers can form their own judgment as to what may be accomplished at the reassembling of the Conference.

Foreseeing the inevitable result to this country if its present silver policy was to be pursued, and being firm believers in the use of both gold and silver as money metals, the

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President and the Secretary of the Treasury felt that every effort within their power should be used to restore silver to its former use as money among the nations.

A brief history of the Latin Union and of former monetary conferences is thought not to be out of place here.

The Latin Union was formed on the 23d of December, 1865, by a convention signed by France, Italy, Switzerland, and Belgium, to which Greece became a party a few years later. The chief incentive that led to its formation was a desire to provide for those countries a uniform metallic currency, in order to prevent the exportation from them of their silver coins,—an exportation which had begun as early as 1850, in consequence of the change in the relative commercial value of the precious metals, caused by the unprecedented production of gold in California and Australasia, and the resulting substitution of gold for silver in their monetary systems.

Previous to the foundation of the Union there had existed, *de facto*, a monetary agreement among the four states originally constituting it, as Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland had adopted the French monetary régime created by the law of April 6, 1803, the unit of which was the silver franc, and which granted legal currency to gold at the coinage ratio to silver of 1 to 15½. The contracting states preserved the double standard, but accorded the charater of legal-tender to the five-franc silver piece only. They stipulated that all silver pieces of less value than the five-franc piece should be limited trade. Each of the states agreed to receive into its treasuries the coins stamped by the others, without limitation as to value in the case of gold coins and five-franc silver pieces, and to the amount of 100 francs in case of other silver pieces in any one payment. The latter were to be legal-tender, in the country that issued them, to the amount of 50 francs between individuals, and to be redeemed, by the issuing country, in gold. Their coinage was reserved to the states, respectively, and was restricted to six francs per capita.

By special conventions in 1874, 1875, 1876, and 1878, the Union first limited and then suspended the coinage of the five-franc silver pieces.

The Convention of 1865 was concluded for fifteen years. It was renewed in 1878 for five years, and again, in 1885, for a like period. It is still in force, by virtue of tacit renewal from year

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to year. By the terms of the Convention of 1885, the suspension of the coinage of full legal-tender silver is continued, while gold coins and five-franc silver pieces continue to have unlimited debt-paying power.

So much for the Latin Union. Now as to the International Monetary Conferences which preceded that of 1892:

The first International Monetary Conference—that of 1867—met in Paris on the 17th of June of that year, at the invitation of the French Government. It was called "to consider the question of uniformity of coinage and to seek for the basis of ulterior negotiations." Twenty countries were represented at it. It failed to come to any agreement as to the means of realizing the object for which it had been called, and adjourned on July 6, after holding seven sessions, at the last of which it was voted to refer its decisions to the several states for diplomatic action, and to invite them to transmit their answers to the French Government before February 16, 1868. This Conference did not meet again.

The next International Monetary Conference was that of 1878. It was called by the President of the United States, who, by the Act of February 28, 1878, was authorized "to invite the governments of Europe to join in a conference to adopt a common ratio between gold and silver for the purpose of establishing internationally the use of bimetallic money, and securing fixity of the relative value between those metals." The Conference met in Paris on August 16, 1878. Twelve countries were represented at it. In the sixth session, Mr. Say, the President, declared in the name of the European delegates that they recognized: *First*, That it was necessary to maintain in the world the monetary functions of silver as well as of gold, but that the selection of the one or the other, or of both simultaneously, should be governed by the special situation of each State or group of States. *Second*, That the question of the limitation of the coinage of silver should likewise be left to the discretion of each state or group of states. *Third*, That the differences of opinion which had appeared excluded the adoption of a common ratio between the two metals. From this declaration, the representatives of the United States expressed their dissent.

The Conference of 1881 was called in January of that year, by the Governments of France and the United States, "to examine

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and adopt, for the purpose of submitting the same to the governments represented, a plan and a system for the establishment, by means of an international agreement, of the use of gold and silver as bimetallic money, according to a settled relative value between those metals." It met in Paris, April 19. Nineteen countries were represented. It held thirteen sessions, at the last of which the President, Mr. Magnin, Minister of Finance of the French Republic, read a resolution saying that, in view of the speeches and observations of the delegates of the several governments, there was ground for believing that an understanding might be established between the states which had taken part in the Conference, but that it was expedient to suspend its meetings; that the monetary situation of some States might call for governmental action; that there was reason for giving an opportunity for diplomatic negotiations; and that therefore the Conference would adjourn to April 12, 1882.

This resolution was adopted. The Conference adjourned, but was not convened again.

The International Monetary Conference that assembled in Paris during the French Exposition, in October, 1889, had no official character. Its members, however, failed to agree on any solution of the silver question.

Early in the year 1891 the Government of the United States took the initiatory steps toward calling another international conference. A correspondence was opened with certain well-known Americans of recognized position and financial knowledge and standing, temporarily residing in Europe, with a view to ascertaining the views of prominent officials of foreign governments on this subject, and the willingness of the leading nations to confer on the subject. Early in the negotiations it became apparent that all the European governments were inclined to favor the Conference if an agreement could be reached with Great Britain. Happily it was found that Lord Salisbury's government felt favorably disposed to the calling of a conference.

At this point the subject was taken up officially by the State Department, and through our Minister at London, Mr. Robert Lincoln, Great Britain agreed to join in the Conference. President Harrison couched the invitation in the very general terms agreed upon with Great Britain. In the language of our Chief Magistrate, they were asked to send delegates "to consider by

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what means, if any, the use of silver can be increased in the currency systems of the nations." The invitation was accepted by all the states invited, twenty in number, and the Conference, after several delays, caused by circumstances not necessary to mention here, met at Brussels on the 22d of last November, all the delegates being present at the opening of the Conference.

It will be noticed that the date of the meeting of the Conference was after the Presidential election. A President representing the opposite political party was to succeed President Harrison, upon whose invitation the Conference had been called. The attitude of the incoming administration upon the great question with which the Conference was to deal could not then be known. Not only had a change of administration been decreed in this country, but an actual change of administration had taken place in Great Britain since the Conference was agreed upon—a change there from an administration favoring bimetallism or the enlarged use of silver to one strongly in favor of a single gold standard. The change of administration in this country was a source of embarrassment in the matter of preparing the instructions to our delegates, and to the delegates themselves during the deliberations of the Conference.

The substance of the instructions to our delegates is here given:

"It is the opinion of the President, and, as he believes, of the people of the United States, with a singular unanimity, that a full use of silver as a coined metal, at a ratio to gold to be fixed by an agreement between the great commercial nations the world, would very highly promote the prosperity of all the people of all the countries of the world. For this reason your first and most important duty will be to secure, if possible, an agreement among the chief commercial countries of the world looking to international bimetallism; that is, the unlimited coinage of gold and silver into money of full debt-paying power at a fixed ratio in coinage common to all the agreeing powers.

"You should not lose sight of the fact that no arrangement will be acceptable to the people or satisfactory to the Government of the United States which would by any possibility place this country on a silver basis while European countries maintain the single gold standard.

"Failing to secure international bimetallism, the next important duty will be to secure, if possible, some action upon the part of European countries looking to a larger use of silver as currency in order to put an end to the further depreciation of that metal."

It was suggested to the delegates before leaving the United States that, in view of the change of administration, failing to

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secure an agreement at the Conference, an effort should be made to take a recess to such date as would give the incoming administration an opportunity for full consideration of the subject.

The importance of the Conference, and the desire to reach a satisfactory solution, is evidenced by the opening remarks of the Prime Minister of Belgium :

"The Conference in which you are called upon to take part has for its object the consideration of the most serious, complex and arduous problem which is presented to modern society.

"It (money) affects all economic and social interests, it affects the commerce of the world, and is the real reason of more than one unexplained crisis."

M. Montefiore Levi, the distinguished Belgian Senator who presided over the Conference, also strongly emphasized the importance of the subject :

"The depreciation of silver so far as it serves as a monetary standard finds an echo throughout the social organism.

"But the principal evil of the present situation lies in the instability that flows from it.

* * * * * * * * * * * *

"Whatever may be the result of your deliberations, one may surely affirm that, convinced of the considerable influence which the solution of a question so complex as that submitted to you may have upon the progress of universal civilization, you will have it at heart to investigate the possibility of remedying the condition of affairs of which none mistake the gravity."

At the commencement of the sessions the United States presented the following resolution :

"That in the opinion of this Conference it is desirable that some measure should be formed for increasing the use of silver in the currency systems of the nations."

Declarations favorable to the resolution were made by the delegates from Great Britain and by the delegates from other countries who spoke, but the resolution was not put to a formal vote.

In addition to the above resolution the delegates from the United States presented for the consideration of the Conference a statement of their views in regard to the silver question and recommended the adoption of International bimetallism as follows :

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1. Unrestricted coinage of both gold and silver into money of full debt-paying power.
2. Fixing the ratio in coinage between the two metals.

They also submitted proposals looking to the retirement of small gold coins and small paper money redeemable in gold, at the same time cordially inviting proposals from other delegates and that they be given precedence.

Mr. Alfred de Rothschild, one of the English delegates, presented a proposition for the purchase of silver by Europe, in the following language:

"The American Government are purchasers of silver to the extent of 54 millions of ounces yearly, and I would suggest that, on condition these purchases were continued, the different European Powers should combine to make certain yearly purchases, say to the extent of about £5,000,000 sterling annually, such purchases to be continued over a period of five years at a price not exceeding 43 pence per ounce standard, but if silver should rise above that price the purchases for the time being to be immediately suspended.

"Gentlemen, I need hardly remind you that the stock of silver in the world is estimated at some thousands of millions, and if this Conference were to break up without arriving at any definite result there would be a depreciation in the value of that commodity which it would be frightful to contemplate, and out of which a monetary panic would ensue, the far-spreading effects of which it would be impossible to foretell."

Many other plans for the enlarged use of silver as money were presented by distinguished delegates, all of which, except the general plan of bimetallism presented by the United States, were referred to a committee of thirteen delegates for examination and report. The committee made two elaborate reports, and while reporting affirmatively on only one proposition, viz., the retirement of small gold coins and paper money, they were unanimously of the opinion that both this proposition and the De Rothschild purchase plan, as modified by M. de Osma, of Spain, should be brought before the Conference for discussion.

The attitude of the various governments towards the proposals, as disclosed by the utterances of the delegates, was substantially as follows:

The representatives of Great Britain, Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Scandinavian countries, Turkey, and Portugal, while favoring the gold standard, expressed themselves as willing to carefully consider any plan which might be proposed by leading commercial nations. The Netherlands, Spain, Mexico, and the United

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States favored international bimetallism. The states of the Latin Union, upon whose attitude to a large extent the situation turned, speaking through M. Tirard, the present French Minister of Finance, declared that owing to the fact that they were already saturated with silver currency they could not favor the adoption of bimetallism unless Great Britain, Germany and the other monometallic powers of Europe would also adopt it. At the same time M. Tirard, speaking of the Latin Union, said :

"I do not know yet what will come out of the Conference and to what practical result it may lead, but this much is certain, our labors will not in any case be fruitless."

After a full discussion of the monetary situation and the attitude of the various governments had been revealed, the sentiment seemed to be general that a long recess should be taken to enable the delegates to confer with their respective governments. This was proposed by Baron de Renzis (Italian delegate), and ably seconded by M. de Osma (delegate from Spain). The latter said :

"There has always been in our discussions a certain dominant and unmistakable character which is supported by the evidence of attitude more eloquently than words, viz.: The presence of a general good will inspired by the existence of a crisis generally felt, but with different degrees of intensity. Whatever personal sympathies we may feel, we must admit that very few of us have been able to agree with the stoic opinion which denies the existence of a crisis and concludes very logically that there is no need of looking for a remedy."

The President in closing the Conference said :

"At the moment when we suspend our labors we carry with us, I regret to say, the very general impression of an uneasiness which calls for a remedy : but we cherish at the same time the hope that palliatives, or possibly a combination of palliatives, may perhaps be found to conjure the evil by the aid of an international agreement or understanding. We have, finally, I venture to assert, a lively and sincere desire to come together again, with the conviction that we shall be better equipped to reach a successful result than when we began our labors."

The financial disaster which may ensue in case of a failure of the leading nations to come to an understanding on this subject is evidenced by the utterances generally of the delegates, and in this respect attention is especially called to the extract from the remarks of the English delegate, being a member of the great banking house of De Rothschild.

CHARLES FOSTER.

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NOTES AND COMMENTS.

"BY WOMEN FOR WOMEN."

DINAH, the sweet woman preacher in *Adam Bede*, often had things "borne in upon her mind." Is it not "borne in upon" the sensible women of to-day that there is an alarming amount of trash being written by women for women? The chief offender is the daily press. Magazines sift more carefully, and we all know the moral tone of most of the successful women's publications to be above criticism. But it is the "Society Column," of the Sunday and week-day newspaper which we arraign—the columns headed "Fair Women's World," "Follies of the Fair," "Feminine Foibles," and the like—pardon a strong quotation from Shakespeare—"damnable iteration."

Well for the men that such columns are so labelled, otherwise they might read themselves into attacks of nausea.

But what of the women for whom such columns are so labelled? The press declares that it "caters to popular taste." In the name of all robust and normal womanhood, where do the mental and physical inanities reside who crave such pabulum?

From a pile of respectable city journals, gathered absolutely at random, I have compiled a few choice illustrations. The writers cover a large range of subjects with great impartiality. They write of actresses, clothes, Russian tea, complexions, corsets, and sleeves with a versatility that suggests the combination of "scissors and hope, smiles and soap" in the "Hunting of the Snark!"

One article unfolds a plan whereby two sisters may become—useful and happy? Oh, no, "decorative" and "effective." In condensing the scheme I will omit quotation marks, but retain as far as possible the phraseology, as being likewise both "decorative" and "effective." Girls who go in for this sort of thing can set each other off by wearing gowns that suit each other, and posing about harmoniously, making pictures of themselves. They should, of course, provide themselves with good contrasting complexions. One might be, for instance, a vivid blonde and the other a dull-ashen blonde. As a basis of operations a corner is very appropriately suggested where they may best weave the web of their fascinations. The writer assures us it works beautifully for both; the pretty one, who hasn't very much brains, attracts the admirers to the corner, and once they are there the plain but brilliant sister does the entertaining.

While it hardly seems worth while to adopt a superior moral attitude towards such an effusion as this, we cannot refrain from charging the writer with a daring plagiarism on the good old nursery fable of the Spider and the Fly.

Another of these authorities tells us that Empire frocks, being worn without stays, have a distinctly demoralizing tendency, for a woman without corsets "loses all moral backbone and wants to loaf on divans, read

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novels, and drink tea or smoke cigarettes." Still another of these babblers —who seem to be the lineal descendants of Tennyson's "Brook"—gives hints for the furnishing of a boudoir. Statistics are not at hand for the number of women in the United States outside of novels who own boudoirs. The boudoir is first defined: It is the room where a woman "thinks, dreams, dresses, talks and reads." The bed must be a "dainty dream," the pillows "snowy invitations." A silver rack must hold the ivory-backed brushes of the "spotless washing-stand," the toilet-table must have its "pretty profusion of oxidized silver, cut glass and flowers," but, "of course the principal thing is the looking-glass." The writing-table must "lock into privacy the love secrets of its owner," and contain two or three sorts of letter-paper "for friends, for business, for lovers, and so on." If the possessor of this boudoir be "a great reader and accumulate literature (?) quickly," she must have, beside a shelf for the poets, a "real bookcase to provide for every one of Ouida's new works and each one of Marie Corelli's." Lastly, pictures, for "what is any room without them? A few daring French water colors are pretty, or some photo-engravings or etchings of poetical semi-nude figures."

Is any comment necessary, or possible? I am uncovering no new atrocity. Every one knows the brand, and these are no worse than dozens of other contributions from dozens of other industrious scribblers for the society column. One can but admire the pluck with which these writers, starting with a poor weakly little bacillus of an idea, succeed by careful propagation in making it fill two columns.

Nearly all women have with mistaken conscientiousness worried through such columns in search of new hints for house, dress, or table. The greater the dilution the stronger the dose, according to Hahnemann and this species of literary woman.

The wonder is how they ever harden into print. And the question is, whether this idiocy is harmless. Does it strengthen the moral fibre of American girls and women and prepare them for what is truly their "higher sphere," which is, I take it, *not* the boudoir? Or does it set false gods in place of pure and healthful ideals?

I trust these conundrums are not like those in *Alice in Wonderland*, which had no answers.

Meantime, however, it seems unfair that so large a body of women as, judging from the space assigned to them in the newspapers, the readers of these columns must constitute, should go unrepresented. They should at least be seen at the World's Fair, probably under glass cases—in the Woman's Building, where they can "pose about harmoniously."

LILLIAN A. MERCUR.

DO THE FITTEST SURVIVE?

IS INSANITY increasing in civilized communities? Is the proportion of blind increasing? Is the proportion of deaf increasing? Is the proportion of paupers increasing? Is the proportion of criminals increasing? A recent writer, who is declared to be both "eminent" and "scientific," thinks so and tries to make others think so. He holds that the defective population in the United States was in 1880 five times as great as it was in 1850. In support of his conclusion he quotes a table from the census of 1880. To

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this I add the figures for 1890 so as to make it complete, and it stands thus:

Year.	Total population.	Defectives.
1850	23,191,876	50,994
1860	31,448,821	68,151
1870	38,558,871	98,484
1880	50,155,788	251,698
1890	62,622,250	293,519

These "defectives" include only the insane, the idiotic, the blind and the deaf and dumb. I have obtained from Dr. John S. Billings, in charge of the division of the vital statistics in the Census office, the following important classification of these for forty years, including the census just made, and also the relative number of "dependants" (paupers who are publicly provided for), and "delinquents" (people in prison):

Classes.	185C.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Defectives:					
Insane	15,610	24,042	37,432	91,997	106,254
Idiots	15,787	18,930	24,527	76,895	95,571
Blind	9,794	12,658	20,320	44,928	50,411
Deafmutes	9,803	12,821	16,205	33,878	41,283
Dependants:					
Paupers	50,353	82,942	76,737	66,203	73,045
Delinquents:					
Prisoners	6,737	19,086	32,901	58,609	71,424

The writer alluded to, whose views are spread on the pages of a reputable magazine, says that "the ratio of insane in public and private institutions of the United States is to the entire population as 156 to 1,000!" This would give us a total of 9,672,000 lunatics—about 91 times greater than the total number of insane, according to the present census. In fact, instead of being 156 to 1,000, there are less than 2 to 1,000. The following table given me by Dr. Billings shows the percentage of defectives according to the censuses of 1880 and 1890:

	1880.	1890.
Insane in a million	1,833	1,697
Idiots in a million	1,533	1,526
Blind in a million	976	805
Deafmutes in a million	675	656

It will be observed that the percentage is less in every case in 1890 than in 1880, which, under the same conditions, would imply a relative or actual diminution of the number of the afflicted. But, as a matter of fact, the conditions are not similar. In 1880 Dr. Wines succeeded in obtaining personal reports from no less than 80,000 physicians, which enabled him to make his chronicle peculiarly complete. The same considerations will apply to previous censuses. They were all taken not only under varying conditions, but largely by different methods and for different ends. As the enumeration occurs only once in ten years it must be made by almost an entirely new corps every time; and it can almost be said that there are no census experts, as there is certainly no uniform system. So it is much more probable that the great apparent differences are due to imperfect enumeration, becoming each decade less and less imperfect, than that there were three times as many insane and idiotic in 1880 as in 1870, or five times as many in 1890 as in 1850.

The writer to whom I have alluded infers an increase in insanity from the fact that in 1881 there were 56,205 treated in asylums, while in 1889 there were 97,535—an increase of 73 per cent. But do the figures justify the conclusion or even tend to justify it? They might be further strengthened, or,

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at any rate, lengthened, by showing that both the deaf mutes and blind in American asylums have greatly increased from decade to decade, as follows:

	Deaf in asylums.	Blind in asylums.
1850	5,019	3,444
1860	9,121	6,087
1870	15,627	9,117
1880	31,586	13,856
1890	59,657	23,981

I submit that these interesting facts do not warrant the assertion that the "defective" have increased in numbers. The multiplication of lunatic asylums does not imply an increase of lunatics but an increase of benevolence. In 1850 the cost of supporting the public paupers of New York City was only $9,863, while in 1890 it was $3,794,972—four hundred times as much. But this, instead of proving that there are four hundred times as many paupers, simply proves that there is four hundred times as much willingness to feed, clothe and shelter paupers.

As civilization advances, social sympathy becomes more active and takes the form of assistance to the decrepit, the insane, the blind, and otherwise disabled, and of help to the poor and restraint to the penal classes, and it is much more probable that many of these unfortunates were without attention in 1850 than it is that they have quintupled during these four decades.

Nobody would think of inferring a vast increase of ignorance in this country, from the fact that there had been a vast increase in the number of schoolhouses, but this seems to be exactly the logic relied on to prove that our incompetent and afflicted classes are increasing. A few years ago a member of Congress proved that there was ten times as much illiteracy in Massachusetts as in Mexico by pointing to the statistics of illiteracy, whereas the fact was that so large a proportion of Mexicans could not read or write that no notice was taken of the fact. It is well known that a hundred years ago scarcely any attention was paid to the insane in any land on earth. In this country there are now 113 public insane asylums, but there were only two when this century began and only 11 before 1840. Virginia built the first in 1773; the Quakers of Pennsylvania followed with another in 1797. Connecticut and Kentucky imitated their examples in 1824 and South Carolina two years later. Of all of our refuges for the feeble or wandering-minded, two-thirds have been built since the war for the Union. Before that time most of the insane who were cared for at all were kept in the almshouses of the land; and in the previous decades there were almost no asylums, and the deranged were, if poor and friendless, permitted to wander at will along the roads and over the fields, sleeping where they could and living or dying as chance directed. Now that every State and almost every community has some sort of an asylum and the unfortunate wanderers are gathered up and housed, the philanthropic kindness is quoted as a proof that insanity is rapidly increasing. Statistics show that there are one hundred times as many blind people in proportion to the population in New York as there are in Egypt, because in Egypt such a very large proportion are blind that no official record whatever is made of it. So it is of all the other afflictions of the defective.

It is the fashion of "labor" orators to affirm that tramps are rapidly increasing in number under prevailing industrial conditions, and even such a writer as Mr. Henry George has estimated them at "millions" in this coun-

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try alone. Of course, no proof of the tremendous multiplication is offered, for there is none to be had. I doubt if there are as many tramps in proportion to our population as there were fifty years ago, and my doubt is founded on the notorious facts that the workingman's wages have more than doubled in that time and the cost of almost everything that the workingman has to buy has been reduced nearly one-half. In other words, an hour's labor will buy and actually does buy three times as much as it would buy fifty years ago. In regard to "tramps" only one thing is new—that is, the name. The very same genus was known to my mother, but she called them "codgers;" the very same genus was known to my grandmother, but she called them "shacks." What my great-grandmother called them I do not know, but I doubt not that the professional rounders were as common then as now. There were no "tramps" then, because the name was not invented till our armies were disbanded. There were no "dudes" then, either, but there have been dandies, swells, fops, beaux and exquisites scattered plentifully down the centuries. Names change; the thing persists.

The actual state of the case cannot be proved, it seems to me, but can only be inferred. We know that the average health of the people of every civilized land is much higher than it was fifty or even twenty-five years ago. We know that the average life of man has been prolonged two years since 1850, and that that prolongation results from better food, better clothing, better drainage and ventilation and wiser sanitary conditions everywhere. Is it not a fair deduction that the causes which result in longer life also result in sounder minds and less defective organs?

The same course of reasoning applied to the criminal classes results in analogous conclusions. Never in the history of man were offenders against the law treated with so much decision, combined with so much kindness, as at present, and it is affirmed by those who have made a study of punitive methods that never before has so large a proportion of offenders been brought to justice. The records of these would, of course, seem to show that crime is increasing, while they would really show only that crime and criminals are more thoroughly under the ban of law. Indeed, many actions are now illegal which were before legal; many are considered criminal which were before venial or even regarded as entirely proper, and such offences added would tend towards the erroneous conclusion alluded to. When our methods of treating criminals, lunatics, idiots and all the defective classes shall have been uniform for a sufficient time to enable trustworthy comparison to be made, it will probably be found that the same causes of improved food and shelter and better sanitation, which are resulting in increasing length of human life, are also resulting harmoniously in diminishing the proportion of those who prey upon their fellow men and those who on account of their infirmities are a burden upon society.

W. A. CROFFUT.

THE ABUSE OF SECRECY.

UNTRUTHFULNESS is believed by many to be the most conspicuous and lamentable evil of our times. It is said to be so widespread and insidious that it is like unaërated blood pulsating in the social arteries, carrying poison into the structures that need nutritious elements. This melancholy view receives some support from facts. Nevertheless, whatever degree of stability we find in commercial and social relations is evidence of a corre-

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sponding degree of general veracity. For untruthfulness is a decomposing force of such power that among wholly unreliable individuals the integration necessary to a complex social life would be impossible. The unquestioning acceptance by most people of the idea that lying is an evil must have had its origin in experience tending to establish an association between untruthfulness and disintegration.

But the recognition of veracity as a useful and essential part of the machinery of civilization does not exclude the possibility that occasional and exceptional inveracity, concealment or evasion may be approved by the most rigid course of reasoning. When an apparent occasion for the exercise of wise inveracity has arisen it would seem to demand an examination of its claim to special treatment. Or, if large numbers of people be exhorted to conceal, whether by silence, evasion, or actual falsehood, facts known to them, they may reasonably ask for sound way-marks of philosophy to guide them in a path so uncertain.

"Is the sewer cleansed by calling aloud that it is foul?" asks a writer. It is seriously questioned by many whether society is benefited by exposures of its crimes and follies. Many considerations array themselves against the claims of frankness, considerations of policy and of sympathy; those of policy embracing patriotic, religious, social, and business interests. Except in its distinctly emotional aspect, patriotism busies itself with desires for military, commercial, and social supremacy. In a time of almost universal peace among nations, and of decaying taste for warfare, the military excuse for covering social cesspools cannot be offered. Commercial and social relations cannot be perceptibly affected by knowledge of facts which bear with almost equal weight upon all great cities, and which are already well known to the controllers of trade and the leaders of society. If the tides of migration set less persistently towards any particular locality on account of the revelations,—a very improbable supposition,—that should be matter for joy to those whose fears of over-population sometimes reach legislative halls and culminate in acts of exclusion.

The expediency of concealing facts which, if known, might influence in an undesirable manner the attitude of the public towards an organization, such as the church, must be at least balanced by danger of accidental exposure that would result in disasters immeasurably augmented by the attempted concealment, which might be construed into sanction.

Societary motives for deceiving the general public are various and complex. Each class desires to maintain ascendancy over inferiors, equality with the different groups on its own plane and such favor as it may have with superiors, if any be acknowledged. The critique does not often enter into personal details, neither does it construct syllogisms which, too comprehensive, touch all the members of a certain circle or class. It does not say:

"Mr. A is a drunkard," nor "All men who belong to the exclusive circle in the town of B. are drunkards; Mr. A belongs to the exclusive circle in the town of B., therefore Mr. A is a drunkard."

It does not even state the major premise from which such a conclusion must inevitably be drawn. Nevertheless, the imputations are often sweeping enough to touch the pride of each unit in a great class as if he were individually assailed.

Certain business interests may be imperilled to an alarming degree by disclosures which appear to bear no relation to them. For instance: In a

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town of 25,000 inhabitants the only first class opera-house in the place falls, in the estimation of the populace, to second class because of certain practices of the management suddenly disclosed to the public. This revelation affects the business not only of those directly connected with theatrical affairs, but also of florists and dressmakers whose productions were supplied to occupants of the boxes, parquette, and dress-circle.

But a criticism of a large class as a whole, or of the population of a city or country in gross has, usually, an exceedingly indirect, very remote, and altogether inappreciable effect, if any at all, upon individual business interests.

The motives most potent in securing evasions and partial or entire suppression of truth is solicitude for the welfare of those who might, it is argued, be influenced to do hurtful things by knowledge that hurtful things are done. A child is to be sent through the *habitat* of wolves, his defence being unconsciousness of their presence or belief that they are sheep. To protect us from a contagion we are to be kept in ignorance that its victims walk among us and sit beside us.

If it be conceded that some things should be concealed, we are plunged into deeper confusion by the question: "What things?" All persons who excuse atrocious punishments of criminals, or any punishments, on grounds of deterrent effect, must desire their favorite barbarity to be made as public as possible in order that the effect may be wide spread. These persons cannot consistently advocate concealment of any criminal proceedings, whatever classes may be affected by them, while those who do not believe that others are deterred from the commission of crime by knowledge of the sufferings of the condemned will usually support the view that criminal proceedings should be open in order that all may judge of the equal fairness with which justice is administered.

Should crime, itself, be concealed? Such a course, besides being manifestly out of harmony with the mental states of a people whose pleasure in criminal-catching is only exceeded by its delight in pugilistic contests, and therefore impracticable, would involve a general knowledge of the essence of human conduct, of what constitutes crime, seldom compassed even by philosophers and not to be confidently looked for in persons of average ability and attainments.

Shall brutalities, such as child-beating for technical offences against well-defended parents or of pigeon-shooting for no offences at all, be subjects for concealment? Unchanging conditions produce unchanging results. When victims of brutality are not able to offer resistance some exterior force must effect whatever changes take place, and if the brutalities remain unknown excepting to the perpetrators, the victims and the witnesses, whence shall arise that sentiment of disapprobation which from small beginnings finally grows strong enough to act as a powerful resistant?

Shall follies pass unmentioned? It is even harder to decide what is foolish than to decide what is criminal and what is brutal. The growth of every social group must be assisted by knowledge of the customs of other groups. It is not essential that isolated facts relating to few persons and having no particular significance be known, but other facts having a wider significance and the telling of which cannot painfully affect any individual, excepting for unsubstantial, sentimental reasons, may, it would seem, properly become widely known. Such knowledge acts as a powerful agent in the

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rectifying of popular errors, sifting that which is essentially evil from that which is only conventionally evil, and setting forth the proper bases of actions in clearer lights and stronger colors. For instance, it is said in criticism of the women of a certain city that they venture out after nightfall without male escorts. Adjacent cities stand on tiptoe to look at these shameless creatures. The air is filled with dust and stones hurled at them by scandalized civilization. But the women persist. Their marketing, shopping, calling, and visiting places of amusement in the evening go placidly on. By-and-by a scientist investigates the facts and finds that these women are as safe on the streets as they are in the most sacred, exclusive, down-lined nests of homes; that the city is quiet and well-lighted, and that assaults upon women who mind their own business are practically unknown. Next a philosopher arises who teaches the people that the Turkish women's custom of wearing veils in the presence of men is no more a superstition than the custom of women remaining indoors after twilight in localities where there is nothing to fear outside. He teaches that acts should be approved or condemned for rational reasons, and not because they conform or do not conform to standards that had their origin among different environments, and grew out of conditions which no longer exist. A few listen, popular prejudices weaken, rationality grows, and gradually large numbers of women learn to adjust their movements to a real, not a fanciful, environment. Thus social revelations may be conducive to benefits neither suspected nor intended by the revealers. They may lead to discoveries that tendencies popularly supposed to be towards disease are really towards health.

Children, slaves, the sane among maniacs and the philosopher among savages must resort to concealments, falsehoods and evasions as means of protection against the brutalities of power; but a people with nothing tangible to fear can have only petty and childish excuses for covering its customs from the eyes of the world.

Ignorance is perilous; knowledge is helpful, necessary. Dangers to be avoided must be known. Every individual finds the knowledge tending to self-preservation more useful than any other. Questions of justice to be decided must be discussed. Folly to be denounced, wisdom to be commended, error to be recognized, tendencies to be studied, re-adjustments to be made, sociological inductions to be drawn, require that the related facts be laid bare unreservedly and collected and arranged with scrupulous care.

CLARA DIXON DAVIDSON.

ENGLISH POOR LAW REFORM.

THE demand for an inquiry into the working of the English Poor Law, which Mr. Gladstone's Government has met by the appointment of a Royal Commission, has come from two different quarters—from politicians who are unconnected with Poor Law administration, and from those who may be regarded as experts in it.

For half a century or more the Poor Law has had no place in national politics, and its local administration has been much freer from party politics than has the administration of municipal government. The Poor Law was placed on an entirely new basis after the investigation of the Royal Commission of 1834, and has not been materially interfered with by Parliament since that time.

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Although it is less than eighteen months since the demand for an inquiry into the working of the Poor Law assumed national importance, there has been for some years in London an association for the Reform of the Poor Laws. Its members were for the most part Radicals. They were not numerically strong; little was heard of the work, but at the annual election of Poor Law Guardians in London, it has been their practice to put forward candidates pledged to their programme.

It was, however, only when Mr. Chamberlain launched his Old Age Pension scheme, at the beginning of 1892, that the demand for an inquiry into the working of the Poor Law became general. Mr. Chamberlain's contention that the Poor Law had failed in its dealing with deserving old people, who were no longer able to maintain themselves, was supported by Mr. John Morley, who dealt with the question in speeches at Newcastle-on-Tyne, and at Sale, near Manchester, within a few weeks after the publication of Mr. Chamberlain's article in the *National Review*.

At Newcastle, when addressing a meeting composed almost exclusively of the members of friendly societies, Mr. Morley asked: "Has the time come when there should be an examination as to whether the provisions and practice of the year 1834 should be modified in regard to old age?" and "Are we to make the operation of the law more elastic in that particular field?" The answers given by his audience to Mr. Morley's questions were in the affirmative; and between the date of the Newcastle speech and the General Election, local Radical Associations in different parts of the country adopted Reform of the Poor Laws as one of the planks in their electioneering programme, and pressed Parliamentary candidates who sought their suffrages to pledge themselves to the movement for an inquiry by Royal Commission.

After the General Election, when it was seen that the appointment of a Royal Commission would be secured, members of Poor Law Guardians Boards also began to advocate an inquiry, and to indicate some of the questions to which they would like to direct the attention of the Commission. As the appointment of the Commission will be due principally to the demands of the Radical Poor Law Reformers, it will be as well to state the questions they desire to bring before the Commissioners, and then to outline those which will be submitted by the Poor Law experts.

In the first place the Radicals ask for more elasticity in the administration of the Poor Law—so far as it touches old and deserving poor—those who are in the workhouse through no fault of their own, and who before they sought its shelter had a life-long record of honesty, industry, and good citizenship. The Poor Law, as at present administered, draws no distinction between people of this kind and those whose whole lives have been vicious and criminal. Inside the workhouse all the people are herded together on exactly the same level, no attempt whatever being made to distinguish between them. This, the Radical Poor Law reformers urge, is one of the greatest blots on the system. They are also dissatisfied with the attitude taken up by many of the Boards of Poor Law Guardians in regard to the administration of outdoor relief. Outdoor relief is one of the few matters concerning which each board is allowed to determine its own policy.

The policy of the Local Government Board, the government department which controls all local administration in England and Wales, is to curtail outdoor relief as much as possible, but it is left to each Board of Guardians to decide whether it will refuse outdoor relief at its discretion in each indi-

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vidual case which comes before it. Most Poor Law experts are with the Local Government Board in its desire that outdoor relief should be cut down to the lowest possible point, and in consequence many of the Boards of Guardians altogether refuse outdoor relief, and offer no alternative from the workhouse to all applicants. This is particularly the case in the London unions, in which the granting of outdoor relief has been brought down to as low a proportion as 20.2 of the total sum administered by the Metropolitan Poor Law Guardians. Last year this total was £912,276, of which £728,158 was represented by indoor relief—that is, relief in the workhouses, and £184,118 was paid out as doles to people who were living with or were partially supported by relatives and friends.

Poor Law reformers insist that this cutting down of outdoor relief has been pushed too far, and that in many instances a grant of two shillings and sixpence weekly from the Guardians, supplemented as it would be by the help of relatives, would save the rate-payers seven shillings and sixpence, and would also save many deserving old men and women who are past work from leaving their home and going into the workhouse.

There is also a feeling among some of the advocates of Poor Law reform that the law as it now stands is a little too harsh in its treatment of tramps and vagrants. They hold that the task which a tramp is compelled to perform before he leaves the casual ward after being afforded a night's lodging, detains him at work too far on into the day, and hinders his chance of getting permanent employment.

These are some of the objections which the Radicals urge against the Poor Law, as it is now administered under control of the Local Government Board, by the Boards of Guardians, in the 648 unions into which England and Wales are divided. They are also asking for reforms in the mode of electing Guardians. They complain that property is altogether too well represented on the Boards as now constituted, and would like to see an end to the system under which county magistrates are *ex-officio* members of the Boards for the unions in which they live, and also an end to the system of plural voting.

At present a ratepayer is allowed to vote in accordance with the amount of his assessment to the Poor Rates. The Radicals also object to the property qualification for a Poor Law Guardian. This is a matter largely in the hands of the Local Government Board, which fixes the qualification in each union. There is no uniformity in this matter. The Law sets out that the Board cannot require a qualification exceeding the annual value of £40. The Local Government Board settles the qualification in each union after consideration of the local circumstances and conditions, and thus it comes that the qualifications vary from £10 in one union to the maximum sum in another.

The Radicals desire a low uniform qualification, on the ground that as working men may become members of the House of Commons, and of city and county councils, there is no reason why they should not also become members of Poor Law Guardian Boards. The people who become chargeable on the Poor Rates are mostly of the laboring classes, and it is maintained by the Radicals that representatives of the working classes ought to have places on the Boards which deal with their cases.

When the County Government Bill of 1888 was in committee of the House of Commons there was a movement on the part of the Radicals to place the Poor Law administration in the hands of the new county councils

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created by that measure. No success then attended the endeavor to make this transfer of power, but the attempt is likely to be renewed, now that the whole question of the administration of the Poor Law is to be inquired into by Royal Commission and later on dealt with by Parliament.

Poor Law experts have about half a dozen questions which they would like to have ventilated at the coming inquiry. Many experts are in favor of a total abandonment of the system under which outdoor relief is administered. Others would like to see some system devised which would enable a classification to be made of paupers in the workhouse. They admit the justice of the complaint of Poor Law reformers in regard to deserving old people who come upon the Poor Rates, but insist that at present there is no way out of the difficulty.

The vexed question of settlement will also be brought before the Commission. This question has been greatly narrowed and shorn of many of its difficulties since the Poor Law of 1834 first came into operation; but it still gives trouble occasionally, and in the case of contending unions calls for the intervention of the Local Government Board, and sometimes for that of the law courts. With a view to settling the question once and for all, some of the Poor Law specialists will advocate the abrogation of the law of settlement and the substitution of one under which all paupers shall become chargeable to the union in which they seek relief.

As the law now stands, twelve months' residence gives a man a settlement and prevents his being returned to the union in which he was born, as was the rule in the early days of the Poor Law. Under the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1851, the Local Government Board may determine questions of settlement arising between the Guardians of two Poor Law unions, and an order to this end made under the seal of the Local Government Board is in all courts and for all purposes final and conclusive. That cases of disputed settlement still occur is shown by the fact that in the year ending the 1st of July last, seven of these orders were issued by the Board, which in reporting the fact in its annual Blue Book expressed regret that Boards of Guardians do not more generally resort to this inexpensive mode of obtaining a decision in settlement cases, and thereby save the cost which litigation to the same end involves.

One other important question which Poor Law experts will submit to the Royal Commission is that affecting tramps. They are anxious that there should be uniformity of treatment of tramps and vagrants all over the country. They are not, as are the Radical Poor Law reformers, of the opinion that the tramp suffers any great hardship under the existing law. They hold that two-thirds of the tramps in England are worthless people, who would rather tramp the country than settle down permanently to work, and that in most unions the treatment accorded them is altogether too indulgent. Slackness in this matter in one union tells to the disadvantage of its neighboring unions, and for this reason Poor Law experts demand a more uniform treatment of tramps. They insist that these people belong to no particular union, but to the State, and that they can best be dealt with by an authority representing a much larger area than a Poor Law union. In London, with its thirty unions, the cost of feeding and sheltering tramps is borne by the whole metropolis, and defrayed out of a common fund.

Poor Law Guardians in the provinces who have given attention to the question are calling for a somewhat similar system outside London and

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are urging that each county should have the care and defray the cost of relieving the tramps within its borders. Alien immigration has, within the last twelve months, greatly exercised Poor Law Guardians in the North of England, and it is quite possible, that, notwithstanding the attention which Lord Dunraven s Committee of the House of Lords gave to this question two or three years ago, the Poor Law phase of it may be again fully discussed before the Royal Commission.

EDWARD PORRITT.

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